INTRODUCTION

TO THE

ANALYTICAL

AND

PRACTICAL GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

WITH EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

BY REV. PETER BULLIONS, D.D.,
AUTHOR OF THE SERIES OF GRAMMANS, ENGLISH, EATIN, AND
GREEK, OR THE SAME PLAN.

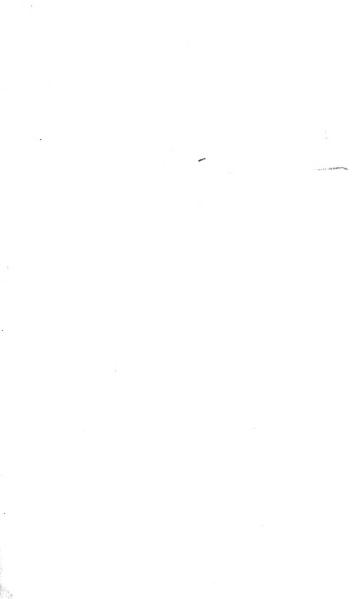
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REVISED AND ADMITTO TO THE TOP OF NAMED AND SCHOOLS.

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PUBLISHED BY ADAM MILLER,

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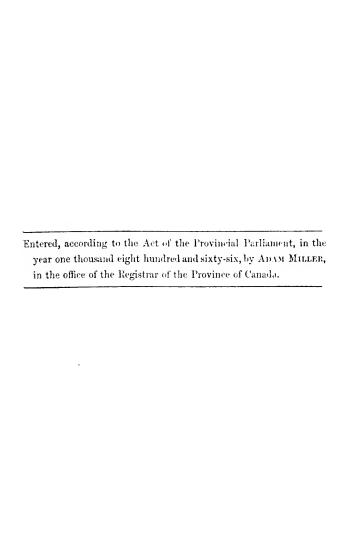
REVISED AND ADAPTED TO THE USE OF CANADIAN SCHOOLS.

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1867.



INTRODUCTION

TO THE

SECOND CANADIAN EDITION.

In presenting this revised edition of the "Introduction to Bullions' Analytical and Practical Grammar," the Editor would remark that, while in simplicity of style and arrangement, suitableness and fulness of practical exercises, and general completeness, Bullions' Grammars cannot easily be surpassed, it has been generally felt among teachers, that considerable improvement might be made in the wording of many of the definitions and rules, and in the treatment of some important branches of the subject. In making alterations, however, it has been an object steadily kept in view, to disturb as little as possible the general features of the book, and yet to make such changes as would remove inaccuracies, supply deficiencies, and render it more generally acceptable and serviceable to Canadian teachers. Special attention has been directed to the Infinitive and Participle ;—a new rule, accompanied by illustrations and explanations, has been given for the construction of each. Considerable care, also, has been taken to present "shall" and "will" in their proper relation and use in the conjugation of the verb. Many of the Rules of Syntax have been changed, and important additions made to the exercises on most of the lessons. The selections in prose and poetry taken from the "Progressive Exercises in Analysis and Parsing," which have been appended, will add greatly to the value of the book, as it does away with the necessity and inconvenience which has hitherto existed, of introducing the "Progressive Exercises" in connection with the Grammar, at an additional expense of almost as much as the grammar itself.

As to the best method of using the book, every experienced teacher will himself be the best judge. It may be well, however, before leaving the subject, to remind those who may not have had the advantage of experience, that it is by no means intended (at least by the Canadian Editor) that in commencing a class in English grammar, the subject should be introduced by assigning

the "First Lesson" in the book, and then the "Second," and so on, neither turning to the right hand nor to the left, till, groping the way amid the increasing darkness, the last lesson has been triamphantly repeated.

There is, perhaps, no better way of introducing the subject. than by a conversation accompanied with questions on the classification of trees, or of men, according to their different trades or occupations, or of something else equally familiar to the class. proposing questions respecting the different kinds of trees,how they distinguish one from another,-how many different kinds they can enumerate,—the different trades that men follow,-the names they give to each to distinguish them,-how they know the one from the other, &c. Then, telling them to open their books, ask if they notice any such difference among the words, the teacher informing them, as he accompanies them in the investigation, that, although they may not at first notice it, yet the difference between the words is not less than the difference between the maple and the beech tree, or between the trade of a shoemaker and of a carpenter. Having, in this manner, awakened an interest and fixed the attention of the class, go on to inform them (when they have, with the assistance of the teacher, to some extent observed the distinction between them), that the words may all be put into eight different classes, explaining each, and comparing the one with the other, in a very general way, at first, and in the most simple manner. Then, to keep the lesson as practical as possible, and secure the advantage which will be gained by leading the class to see that they really do know, and have already learned, a good deal about grammar (though they may never have been in a grammar class). call upon them to name the various things they see in the room, then to enumerate their qualities, continuing this conversation, questioning, and exercise, till the difference between the noun and the adjective is clearly perceived .- Then, turning to the selections, pages 87 and 88, or at the end of the book, let them pick out the nouns on any page, (and do the same with each of the other parts of speech when they have been sufficiently explained) and continue the exercise till they are somewhat expert at it. And now, reminding them again of the nature and office of the adjective, go over the same nouns again, stopping at each to point out the adjectives, if any, that define or qualify it. In this manner all the adjectives, and the purpose for which they are used, will be brought under notice. These nouns, each with its adjective attached, might then be written on the slate, in a

column headed nouns and adjectives. A short exercise of this kind might, at the close of the lesson, be assigned to be prepared for the next lesson. Then take up the Pronoun in the same way; then, the Noun, Adjective and Pronoun together, giving out a short exercise each day to be prepared for the following lesson. The Verb would come next. The lesson on it might be introduced by calling on the class to make statements about the various things around them, requiring them to point out the Verb in each sentence, and the person or thing about which the assertion is made, directing attention to the fact that they must, and always do, use a verb when they make a statement about anything. They will now be quite prepared to understand the connection between the Verb and its subject, and the distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs, and, hence, to point out on any page the nouns and pronouns which stand as nominatives and objectives to verbs, and to illustrate these distinctions by examples of their own. The Adverb would properly engage the attention next,—and then the Preposition. After noticing that every preposition must have its noun or pronoun, depending on it to make sense, this objective should be pointed out by the class in connection with each preposition, and after explaining that this preposition with its objective, is used, in every instance, to complete the meaning of some other word, the preposition and its object taken together should then be connected with the word which it completes. Lastly, proceed with the conjunction in the same manner, pointing out and illustrating, at the same time, the connecting office of relative pronouns and conjunctive adverbs. These exercises should be continued till the class have obtained a good idea of the classification of words, and the general relations to each other that exist among them when combined in sentences.

If the subject be introduced in some such manner as this, and these exercises and conversations be followed up in a spirited manner, depend upon it, the attention of the class will soon be thoroughly aroused, and the result will tell as favourably on the intellectual progress of the pupils as on their advancement in the more immediate subject of study. Let this intellectual ground-work be thoroughly laid, and little anxiety need be felt for the rest. In conclusion, the Canadian Editor would only further recommend and strongly urge, that the exercises on each lesson be thoroughly performed; and that after the Verb has been reached in the regular order of the book, the THIRD part be taken up and carried forward simultaneously with the Sucord, either in alternate lessons, or by dividing the time of each lesson (when it is an hour) between each.

Toronto, Canada West, April, 1866.

PREFACE TO AMERICAN EDITION.

This little work has been prepared to serve as an introduction to the Author's "Analytical and Practical Grammar of the English Language." The definitions and rules are the same, throughout, as in that work, and are arranged in the same order.

The work is divided into Lessons, each of which is devoted to some one topic. The arrangement in each Lesson, is the same throughout; except that the Questions on each Rule of Syntax are left to be framed by the teacher. That order is the following:— The Definitions and Rules belonging to the Lesson, and intended to be committed to memory, are placed first, in large type. Next to these, any subordinate matter regarded as proper for so brief a compend, is subjoined in smaller type, to be earefully read and studied with the Lesson. Then a series of Questions so framed that correct answers will bring out all the leading facts contained in the preceding text. And lastly, practical Exercises are subjoined, for the purpose of reducing immediately to practice, the knowledge acquired, and fixing it, in the easiest and most effectual manner, in the understanding.

Prefixed to the Rules of Syntax, there has been introduced a number of Lessons on the ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES. This useful exercise is presented in such a way as to be easily understood; and to an extent sufficient for beginners; and the whole illustrated by a number of Modells of ANALYSIS, which will serve as a guide to the pupil in preparing his lessons in this department.

As it is of great importance to keep the acquisitions of pupils already made, always at hand, and to impress them indelibly on their minds by repeated reviews of previous Lessons, it will be seen that directions are given at the beginning of each Lesson, for carrying this useful practice into effect.

Another feature in this work is, that with the principles of Grammar, at every step, are combined instructions and exercises in the elementary principles of Composition. Analysis and Composition are carried on together. Directions for parsing each part of speech, with accompanying examples for practice, are given as soon as it has been treated of. And, in like manner, the proper method of combining words for the purpose of expressing our ideas, is pointed out, and Exercises are devised, as soon as the pupil has been made acquainted with the classes of words capable of being combined. One Exercise of this kind, sometimes more, is connected with almost every Rule of Syntax, as at once an exercise on the Rule, and a praxis on Composition.

Troy, N.Y., August, 1862.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Lesson 1.—Definition and Division.

[Commit Definitions and Rules accurately to memory.]

English Grammar teaches the art of speaking and writing the English Language with propriety.

It is divided into four parts; namely, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

[Review the preceding Lesson.]

PART FIRST.—ORTHOGRAPHY.

Lesson 2.—Letters and Syllables.

ORTHOGRAPHY treats of letters, and the mode of combining them into syllables and words.

 Λ LETTER is a character representing a particular sound of the human voice.

There are Twenty-six letters in the English Alphabet.

Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

A Vowel is a letter which represents a simple *inarticulate* sound, and, in a word or syllable, may be sounded alone. The vowels are u, e, i, o, u, and w and y not before another vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in law, bay.

A consonant is a letter which represents an *articulate* sound: and in a word or syllable is never sounded alone, but always in connection with a vowel. The consonants are b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z, and w and y before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in <math>war, youth.

A Diphthong is the union of two vowels in one sound; as ou in out, oi in oil. They are of two kinds, Proper and Improper.

A Proper Diphthang is one in which both the vowels are sounded; as, og in bog, on in ranal, of in oil, ow in row.

An Improper Diphthong is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, on in boot.

A Triphthong is the union of three vowels in one sound; as, eau in beauty.

A Syllabic is a distinct sound uttered by one impulse of the voice, and represented by one or more letters; farm, farm-er, ea-gle, a-r-ri-al.

A word of one syllable is called a Monosyllable.

A word of two syllables is called a Dissyllable.

A word of three syllables is called a Trisgllable.

A word of more than three syllables is called a Polysyllable.

Spelling is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters.

QUESTIONS.

What is English Grammar! Into how many parts is it divided? Mention them. What is Orthography! What is a letter? How many letters are there in English! How are they divided! What is a vowel!—a consonant! Name the vowels. When are w and y vowels! When, consonants! What is a diphthong?—a proper diphthong?—an improper diphthong?—a triphthong?—What is a syllable! What is a word of one syllable termed!—of two?—of three?—of four or more? What is spelling!

PART SECOND.—ETYMOLOGY.

[Review the preceding lessons and answer the questions.]

Lesson 3. Division of Words.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivations.

A word is an articulate sound used by common consent as the sign of an idea. Words are divided into different classes, called

PARTS OF SPEECH.

The parts of speech in the English language are eight; viz., The Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

Of these, the *Noun*, *Pronoun*, and *Verb*, are declined; the rest are indeclinable.

A Substantive is a noun, or any word or phrase used as a noun.

Obs. A Declinable word is one which undergoes certain changes of form or termination, to express the different relations of gender, number, case, person, &c., usually termed in Grammar Accidents: as, man, men; love, loves, loced.

An Indeclinable word is one which undergoes no change of form; as, good, some, perhaps.

ILLUSTRATION.—To speak is to say what we think. What one says in speaking is called speech or language. All speech is made up of words, each one of which has its own meaning and use. Any number of words properly arranged so as to express a thought, or make complete sense, is called a sentence. Words are divided into different sorts or classes called parts of speech, according to their meaning, and use in speaking, i.e.: Some words are names of things, and are called nouns; some qualify or limit the meaning of nouns, and are called nouns, &c. [See above, and the definitions of the different parts of speech.] To take the words of a sentence separately, and tell to what class of words each belongs and describe it, is called Parsing. Hence,

Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its elements or parts of speech, pointing out their accidents or properties, and the relations they bear to each other.

QUESTIONS.

What does Etymology treat of? What are words? What are they divided into? What are these classes called? How many parts of speech are there? Name them. Which are declinable? Which are indeclinable? What is a declinable word?—an indeclinable? What is Parsing?

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

Lesson 4:—Nouns.

A Noun is the name of anything; as, Tree, Toronto, kindness.

Nouns are either Proper or Common.

A Proper Noun is the name applied to an individual only; as, John, Canada, the St. Lawrence.

A Common Noun is a name applied to all things of the same class or kind; as, man, table, book.

A Substantive is a noun, or any word or phrase used as a noun (109).

HLUSTRATION.—Every thing of which a person can speak, hear, or think, has a name; that name in grammar is called a noun. Names common to all things of the same sort or class, are called Common nouns; as, Man, woman, day, river, city, country.

Names applied only to individuals of a sort or class, and not common to all, are called *Proper nouns*; as, *John*, *Lucy*, *Friday*, *Ontario*, *Montreal*, *England*. *Common* nouns, the n, distinguish sorts or classes; *Proper* nouns distinguish individuals. Thus, the noun "*Man*" is the name of a class or species, and is applied equally to all, or is *common* to all the individuals in that class. But "*John*" is a mane that belongs only to certain individuals of that class, and not to others; it is therefore not *Common* but *Proper*, i.e. belonging to an individual.

A word that makes sense after an article, or the phrase speak of, is a noun : as, A man; I speak of grammar.

OBSERVATIONS.

Un ler common nouns are ranked,

1. Collective nouns, or nouns of multitude, as, army, people.

2. Abstract nouns, or names of qualities; as, piety, wickedness.
3. Verbal nouns, or names of actions; as, reading, writing,

sleeping.

The accidents of nouns are Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

PERSON. 13

QUESTIONS.

What is a noun? How many kinds of nouns are there? What is a common noun? What is a proper noun? What part of speech are names of things? What is a collective noun?—an abstract noun?—a verbal noun? Are these nouns proper or common? What Accidents belong to nouns?

EXERCISES.

Point out the *nouns* in the following sentences; say why they are nouns. Tell whether they are proper or common, and why. Exercises of this kind may be taken from any book.

The table and chairs in this room belong to Robert. The houses and streets in Toronto are larger than those in Belleville. The principal cities in Canada are Montreal, Quebec, Toronto, Kingston, Hamilton, and London. Wheat, corn, rye, and oats, are extensively cultivated. Apples, pears, cherries, plums, and other fruits abound. George is older than John; they both study arithmetic and grammar.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

Lesson 5.—Person.

Person, in grammar, denotes the relation of a noun or pronoun to what is said in discourse.

The persons are three, First, Second, and Third.

A noun is in the *first* person, when it denotes the speaker or writer; as, "I, Paul, have written it."

A noun is in the second person, when it denotes the person or thing addressed; as, "Thou, God, seest me,"—"Hail, Liberty."

A noun is in the *third* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "*Truth* is mighty."

 2

OES.—The first and the second person can belong only to nouns denoting persons, or things regarded as persons; because such only can speak or be spoken to. The third person may belong to all nouns; because every object, whether person or thing, may be spoken of.

ILLUSTRATION.—Person makes no change either in the meaning or the form of a noun, but simply denotes the manner in which it is used; so that the same noun, without change, may be in the first person, or the second, or the third, according as it denotes the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. Moreover, as the name of the speaker or of the person spoken to is seldom expressed (the pronoun I or thou being used in its stead), a noun is very seldom in the first person, not often in the second, and almost never in either, unless it be a proper noun, or a common noun personitied. For this reason, the mention of person as a property of the noun, may be omitted in parsing, except when it is of the first or second person, always taking it for granted that it is of the third, unless otherwise mentioned. The distinction of nouns into proper and common, may also be omitted; because no use is made of the distinction in the construction of a sentence.

QUESTIONS.

What is a person? How many persons are there? What does the first denote?—the second?—the third? To what sort of nouns do the first and the second person belong? Why? To what does the third belong? Why? Does person make any difference in the meaning or the form of the noun? What, then, does it denote? Is the name of the speaker, or the person spoken to, often mentioned? What words are used instead of them?

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

Lesson 6.—Gender.

Gender is the distinction of nouns with regard to Sex. There are three genders, the Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

Nouns denoting males are Masculine; as, man, boy, king, lion.

Nouns denoting females are Feminine; as, woman, girl, queen, lioness.

Nouns denoting neither males nor females are Neuter; as, book, house, field.

There are three ways of distinguishing the sexes.

1. By different words; as,

Masc. Fem. Mase. Fem. Bachelor maid Hart roe belle Beau Horse mare Boy girl Husband wife Brother sister King queen Buck doe Master mistress Bull Nephew niece cow Drake duck Ram, buck Father daughter mother Son Friar Stag nnn Unele Gander goose aunt

2. By a difference of Termination; as,

Masc.Muse.Fem.Fem. ${f Abbot}$ abbess Jew iewess Lion Actor actress lioness Arbiter arbitress Patron patroness Peer Baron baroness peeress Bridegroom bride Poet poetess Duke duchess Prince princess Emperor Shepherd shepherdess empress enchantress Enchanter Sorcerer sorceress Executor Tutor executrix tutoress Heir Viscount heiress viscountess Hero heroine Widower widow Host hostess

3. By prefixing a distinguishing word; as,

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \textit{Mase.} & \textit{Frm.} \\ \textit{A cock sparrow} & \textit{A hen sparrow} \\ \textit{A he goat} & \textit{A she goat} \\ \textit{A man servant} & \textit{A mid servant} \\ \textit{A male child} & \textit{A female child} \\ \textit{Male descendants} & \textit{Female descendants} \end{array}$

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Some nouns are either mascaline or feminine; as, parent, servant, neighbor. Such are sometimes said to be of the common gender.

- 2. Some nouns, naturally neuter, are often converted by a figure of speech into the masculine or the feminine; as, when we say of the sun, "He is setting;" of the moon, "She is eclipsed;" and of a ship, "She sails."
- 3. Animals of inferior size, or whose sex is not known, are often spoken of as neuter. Thus, of a child we may say, "It is a lovely creature."

QUESTIONS.

What is a gender? How many genders are there? What does the masculine gender denote?—the feminine?—the neuter? What nouns are said to be masculine? What, feminine? What, neuter? How many ways are there of distinguishing the sexes? What are they? When a noun denotes either a male or female, of what gender is it sometimes said to be? When the sex of animals is not known, of what gender are their names?

EXERCISES.

- 1. In the preceding lists, tell the funining of each mas uline noun, and the masculine of each feminine.
- 2. Tell the part of speech and gender of the following words: thus, house, a noun, neuter; hou, a noun, masculine, &c.

House, boy stone, boot, cow, father, mother, sister, brother, daughter, aunt, nephew, niece, uncle, shepherd, paper, pen, ink, parent, neighbor, friend, lion, widow. baron, negro, hero, house, tree, bird, mouse, fly, &c.

(Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.)

Lesson 7. -Number.

Number is that property of a noun by which it expresses one, or more than one.

Nouns have two numbers, the Singular and the Plural. The Singular denotes one; the Plural, more than one.

GENERAL RULE.

The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular; as book, books.

SPECIAL RULES.

1. Nouns in s, sh, ch soft, z, x, or o, form the plural by adding es; as, Miss, Misses; brush, brushes; match, Matches; topaz, topazes: fox, foxes; hero, heroes.

Exc. Nouns in co, io, and yo, and in ch sounding k, have s only; as, cameo, camoes; folio, folios, monarch, monarchs. Also canto has cantos; but other nouns in o after a consonant now commonly add cs; as grotto, grottoes; tyro, tyroes, &c.

2. Nouns in y after a consonant, change y into ies in the plural; as Lady, ladies.

Nouns in y after a vowel, follow the general rule; as, Day, days,

Also, all proper nouns in y; as the *Pompeys*; the *Tullys*.

3. Nouns in f or fe, change f or fe into ves in the plural: as, Loaf, loaves; life, lives.

Exc.— But dwarf, searf, brief, chief, grief, kerchief, handkerchief, mischief, gulf, turf, surf, fife, strife, proof, hoof, roof, reproof, follow the general rule. Also, nouns in j'have their plural in s; as, muff, muffs; except stuff, which has sometimes staves.

OBSERVATIONS.

See An. and Pr. Gr., 155-160.

1. Some nouns form the plural irregularly. They are the following:

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plum
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	мониен	Choose	gees.
Child	children	Monse	mile
	O21		

Singular, Placal, Singular, Placal, Foot feet Louse liee Ox oxen Penny pence

Singular. Plural.

Brother (one of the same family) brothers
Brother (one of the same society) brethern
Sow or swine sows or sw

Sow or swine sows or swine
Die (for gaming) dicc
Die (for coining) dies

Aid-de-camp aids-de-camp
Court-martial courts-martial
Cousin-german cousins-german
Father-in-law, &c. fathers-in-law, &c.

2. Words from foreign languages generally retain their original plural. As a general rule nouns in uu or ou have a in the plural; but is in the singular, is changed into is: is and is into is is; as into i (154); as,

Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Λ rcanum	arcana	Chisis	crises
Automaton	automata	Λpex	apices
Axis	axes	Magus	magi

- 3. Proper names have the plural only when they refer to a race or family, as the *Stewarts*; or to several persons of the same name; as, the twelve *Cusars* (161).
- 4. Names of metals, virtues, vices, and things weighed or measured, are mostly singular; as, gold, meckness, temperance, milk, sugar, &c.
- 5. Some nouns are plural only; as, annals, data, bellows, seissers, &c.
- 6. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, der, shorp, trout, salmon, &c.
- 7. Some nouns are plural in form; but in construction, either singular or plural; as, amends, nears, news, riches, pains; and the names of sciences; as, mathematics, ethics, &c.
 - 8. The article *n* or *an* before a singular noun, is dropped before *ye* plural; as, singular, *n* man; plural men.

QUESTIONS.

What is meant by number? How many numbers are there? What does the singular denote?—the plural? How is the plural commonly formed? When is the plural formed by adding cs? How do nouns in y, after a consonant, form the plural?—after a vowel?—nouns in j or fe? When have proper names a plural? What nouns are mostly singular? What nouns are plural only? What nouns are alike in both numbers? What nouns are plural in form, but either singular or plural in construction?

EXERCISES.

1. Put the following words in the plural, and give the rule for forming it; thus, "Chair, plural chairs." Rule. "The plural is commonly formed," &c.; "Fox, plural fuert." R. "Nouns in s sh," &c.

Chair, fox, table, eat, dog, horse, house, hand, finger, arm, boy, girl, dish, church, box, miss, sky, body, key, day, toy, leaf, knife, wife, loaf. An apple (Obs. 8, above), a pear, a cherry, a bush, a church, a bell.

2. Write or spell the singular of the following plurals and prefix the indefinite article:—

Flies, boxes, leaves, brushes, knives, marshes, bays, tables, bushes, trees, dogs, ducks, geese, wives, duties, churches, matches, miee, days, keys, staves, horses, mules, cows, sheep, goats, &c.

Tell the plural of the following irregular nouns:-

Man, woman, child, ox, tooth, foot, goose, penny, mouse; father-in-law, mother-in-law, court-martial, fisherman, washerwoman, cousin-german, &c.

4. Tell the gender and number of the following nouns: give the plural and the rule for formingit: thus, "House," a noun, heater, singular; plural, "houses." "The plural is commonly formed, "&c.

House, boy, stone, boat, father, king, knife. aunt, emperor, governess, pen, lioness, baron, sister, brother, lord, box, bush, rush, goose, bachelor, doe, bride, fly. loaf, study, coach, toy, mouth, watch, hero, church, tree, way, wife, half, fish, table, mother, apple, cherry, star, sun, moon, planet, earth, sky, mountain, river, sea, &c.

Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

Lesson 8.—Cases of Norms.

Case is the relation of nouns and pronouns to other words.

Nouns have three cases; the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, and *Objective*.

The *Nominative* case expresses that of which something is said, or declared; as, The *sun* shines (164).

The *Possessive* case denotes that to which something belongs; as, The *lady's* fan (165).

The *Objective* case denotes the object of some action or relation; as, James assists *Thomas*; they live in *Guelph* (166).

The nominative and objective of nouns are alike.

The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and s to the nominative; as, *John's*.

When the plural ends in s, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only; as, Ladies'.

NOUNS ARE THUS DECLINED:

.\	Lady	Ladie.	John	
10.	Lody's	Ladies'	John's	
170	Lindy	Leties	John	

Proper names generally want the plural.

Parsing.—A noun is parsed by telling its kind, gender, person, number, and case;

thus, Lady's, a noun, common, feminine, third, singular, and in the possessive case.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. When the nominative singular ends in ss, or letters of a similar sound, the s after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, in order to avoid too close a succession of hissing sounds; as, "for goodness sake;" "for conscience'sake." This, however, is seldom done, unless the word following begins with s; thus we do not say "the prince' feather," but the "prince's feather."
- 2. The objective case, with of before it, is generally equivalent to the possessive; thus, "the rage of the tyrant," and "the tyrant's rage" mean the same thing. Sometimes, however, the meaning will be different. [See An. & Pr. Gr. 176.]

QUESTIONS.

What is case? How many cases have nouns? What does the nominative case express?—the possessive?—the objective? What two cases are alike? How is the possessive singular formed?—the possessive plural?

EXERCISES.

Parse the following nouns, by telling their kind, gender, 1.32.3, number, and case; thus, "Father," a noun, common, massauline, third, singular, in the nominative."

Men's ideas often differ. The sun shines. The man is a hero. Temperance promotes health, intemperance destroys it. All human happiness contains some imperfection. Thomas supports his father. I have John's hat. The flowers of spring are beautiful. Death brings

^{*}In using the above exercises, it will save much time, which is all important, if the pupil be taught to say everything belonging to the noun in the fewest words possible; and always in the same order as above. It will also be a profitable exercise for limit to assign a reason for every part of his description; thus, Fother, a noun, because the name of an object; musculine, because it denotes the male sea; singular, because it denotes but one; plural, fathers. Rule—"The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular."

happiness to good men. This world's prosperity often brings pain. A wise man's anger is of short continuance.

[Review the whole thoroughly from the beginning, answering accurately all the questions.]

Lesson 9.—The Adjective.

An Adjective is a word used to qualify or limit a substantive; as, A good boy; that box; ten dollars. He is poor. To lie is base [196].

For the word Substantive, see Lesson 4.

Adjectives denoting number, are called Numeral Adjectives. Of these, there are two classes; the *Cardinal*, and the *Ordinal*.

The Cardinal are one, two, three, &c., and express how many—written in figures, thus, 1, 2, 3, &c.

The Ordinal are first, second, third, &c., and express which one of a number—written in figures, thus, 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, &c.

TLLUSTRATIONS.—A norm, or the name of a thing, being mentioned without qualification, brings before the mind the idea of the thing itself. Thus, the word "horse," for example, suggests the idea of the animal so called. But, if we wish to describe or point out a particular horse more definitely, and to distinguish it from others of the same species, we qualify the term, (196); i. e., we connect with the name or noun a word denoting some property, or quality, or circumstance by which it may be known or distinguished; as, "circumstance by which it may be known or distinguished; as, "circumstance in an old horse;" "a black horse;" "a klack horse;" "a little horse;" "tenodies horse;" "Sometimes several of these may be joined with the

same noun; as, when we say, "a little old black horse;" "a smooth white round stone;" "the good old way."

In any phrase or sentence, the adjective qualifying a noun may generally be found by prefixing the expression, "What," or "What kind of," to the noun in the form of a question; as, What kind of a horse! What kind of a stone? What kind of a way? The word containing the answer to the question is an adjective.

It may assist the "young beginner" also to remember, that a word which makes sense with the word thing after it, is an adjective; thus, good, bad, little, round, may be adjectives, because we can say a good thing, a bad thing, a little thing, &c.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The Adjective Pronouns, when used with nouns, are not pronouns, but Definitive Adjectives. Other parts of speech, when used to qualify or limit a noun, or pronoun, perform the part of an adjective, and should be parsed as such; as a gold ring, a he bear, the then king, the above remark, &c.
- 2. Adjectives are often used as nouns; as, "God rewards the good and punishes the bad." "The virtuous are the most happy." Adjectives thus used are regarded as plural, because they denote more than one.

QUESTIONS.

What is an adjective? What are adjectives denoting number called? What is a numeral adjective? How many classes of numeral adjectives are there? What are the cardinal numbers? What do they express? What are the ordinal numbers? What do they express? When do nouns or other parts of speech become adjectives? Are Adjectives ever used as nouns? Of what number are they considered?

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise, let the pupil first point out the nouns and then the adjectives; and tell how he knows them to be so.

A round table, a pretty dog, a little mouse, a low chair, a small book, a sharp knife, white paper, dirty books, ugly faces, a beautiful flower, a rich man, fresh fish, a wild horse, a short man, an old hat, a fierce dog, a good pen, a wise king, an honest man, tame rabbits, a fine day, a sweet apple, a long stick, a little handsome old woman, a thick square book, a large white cat, a new

book, a clean white frock, a full cup, an empty mug, a warm room, a wet towel, a cold rainy night, a cloudy sky, windy weather, hard frost, deep snow.

- 2. In the above Exercises, let the pupil take each noun and prenx to it as many adjectives as he can think of, so as to make sense; as, for example, "table," high table, low table, long table, &c., &c., and in reciting put the emphasis on the adjective.
- 2. Let him take each adjective, and add to it as many nouns as he can think of, so as to make sense; as "round," a round ball, a round holes, a round holes, a round cake, &c., and put the emphasis on the roun.

Lesson 10.-The Article.

AN ARTICLE is a word put before a noun, to limit its meaning; and is, therefore, a limiting adjective; as, a man, the man.

There are two articles, a or an and the.

A or an is called the *Indefinite* Article, because it limits its noun to one of a class, but no particular one; as, a king, i. e., any king.

The is called the *Definite* article, because it limits its noun to a particular one of the class; as, the king, i. e., some particular

King, known or described.

A noun without an article, is taken in its widest sense; as, Man is mortal; i. e., All mankind: or, in an indefinite sense; as, There are men destitute of all shame, i. e., some men.

The is sometimes put before a noun denoting the species; as, the oat; ; the tion (192).

OBSERVATIONS.

1. A is used before a consonant; as, A book, a house, a tree.

Also before words beginning with u long, and ou, because they sound as if beginning with the consonant y; thus, A anit, a use, a culogy,—pronounced as if written, a yanit, a yase, a yealogy.

- 2. An is used before a rowel or silent h: as, An age, an hour.
- 3. A or an is used before the singular number only; the, before either the singular or the plural.

Parsing.—The article is parsed by stating whether it is definite or indefinite, and mentioning the noun to which it belongs; thus,

A book. A is an article, indefinite, and belongs to "book."

QUESTIONS.

What is an article? How many articles are there? What is A or An called? Why? What is The called? Why? In what sense is a noun without an article taken? What is A used before? What is An used before? How is the article parsed?

EXERCISES.

Is it proper to say a man, or an man? and why? a apple, or an apple? and why? a house, or an house? and why? a hour, or an hour? and why?

Prefix the indefinite article in the proper form to the following words:

Chair, table, horse, eart, book, house, garden, bird, owl, egg, ear, eye, tree, cow, unit, use, old man, young man, word, book, pot, bench, open waggon, round stone, old hat, penny trumpet, ice house, house, honor, hopeful boy, honest man, &c. See An. & Pr. Gr. 187.

Correct the following errors, and give a reason for the change; parse the articles:

An cup, an door, a apple, an pear, an hat, an wig, an eulogy, a honor, an erow, a ostrich, an pen, a ugly beast, an pretty beast, an pretty thing, an huge monster, a upper room, a ice house, an nice house, an humorous poem, a open waggon, an hard nut.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

Lesson 11.—Comparison of Adjectives.

The comparison of adjectives is the variation by which they express three degrees of quality; the *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*.

The Positice expresses the quality simply;

The Comparitive expresses the quality in a higher degree in one object than in another;

The Superlative expresses the quality in the highest degree in one object compared with two or more.

Adjectives of one syllable form the comparative by adding er to the positive; and the superlative, by adding est; as, sweet, sweeter, sweetest.

Adjectives ending in *e* mute, drop *e* before *er* and *est*; as, *large*, *larger*, *largest* (68).

Adjectives of more than one syllable are commonly compared by prefixing more and most; as, beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

To these rules there are some exceptions.—Adjectives of two syllables are sometimes compared by er and est; as, our tenderest cares; a happier state; and adjectives of one syllable are sometimes compared by prefixing more and most; as, more wise, most fit, &c.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Dissyllables in to after a mute, are generally compared by er and est: as, able, abler, ablest. After a consonant, y is changed into i before er and est: as, dry, driver, drivet: happy, happier, happiest. But y with a vowel before it is not changed; as, gay gayer, gayest.
- 2. Some adjectives form the superlative by adding most to the end of words; as, upper, uppermost. So, undermost, foremost, hindmest, utmost.

- 3. When the positive ends in a simple consonant preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before er and est; as, hot, hotter, hottest (60).
 - 4. Some adjectives do not admit of comparison, viz:
 - 1st. Such as denote number; as, one, two; third, jourth.

 - 2d. ______figure or shape; as, circular, square.
 3d. _____posture or position; as, perpendicular, horicontal.

4th. Those of an absolute or superlative signification; as, true, perfect, universal, chief, extreme, &c. (224).

ADJECTIVES COMPARED IRREGULARLY.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative
Good	better	best
Bad, evil, or ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much or many	more	most
Late	later	latest or last
near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther or further	farthest or furthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or eldest	oldest or eldest

6. Much is applied to things weighed or measured; many to those that are numbered. Elder and eldest are applied to persons only; older and oldest to either persons or things.

QUESTIONS.

How many degrees of comparison are there! What does the positive denote?—the comparative?—the superlative? How are monosyllables compared !-words of more than one syllable !dissyllables in le after a mute?—in y after a consonant? What sort of adjectives double the final consonant before er and est? What adjectives are not compared! What adjectives are compared irregularly?

Parsing.—Adjectives are parsed by stating their class, the degree of comparison, and the nouns to which they belong.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the adjectives in the following Exercise; parse them; compare them; thus, a good father: "Good," an adjective, positive degree, qualifies "father," compared irregularly, good, better, best.

2. Point out the nouns, and parse them by telling their gender, number, and case, as directed: thus, "father," a noun, masculine.

in the nominative singular.

A good father, a wise man, a more beautiful girl, wild horses, young colts, a sweeter apple, the wisest prince, green trees, the honest farmers, the most virtuous people, the richer tradesman, the better scholar, the tallest girl, the finer sheep, large oranges, the merriest fellows, the old soldier, pretty dogs, an ugly calf, the tamest rabbits, the little mouse, the longest stick, a wider table, a most excellent thing, the highest house, the most fruitful garden.

NUMERALS.—Four men, the fourth day, six days, the seventh day, 365 days, ten horses, the first time;—of four houses, the first is of wood; the second of stone; the third and fourth, of briek.

3. Turn back and go over the adjectives in the exercise, Lesson

18, in the same way.

4. In both exercises, change singular nouns into plural, and plural into singular; give the rule for the plural, and then read the pluras so changed; thus, Father, pl. fathers. "The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular;" good fathers.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions].

Lesson 12.—Pronouns.

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, *John* is a good boy; *he* is diligent in *his* studies.

Pronouns may be divided into four classes; Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Adjective.

HLLUSTRATION.—PRONOUNS are used simply to avoid the too frequent and consequently disagreeable repetition of the

nouns for which they stand. Thus, instead of saying, John is a good boy; John is diligent in John's studies; we use the pronoun, and'say as above, "John is a good boy; he is diligent in his studies." In the use of pronouns, care should be taken to arrange the sentence in such a way as to leave no doubt to what noun a pronoun refers.

The four classes of pronouns are used in different ways, as will be seen under each.

The accidents of Personal, Relative, and Interrogative pronouns, like nouns, are *Person*, *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS are those which distinguish the person by their form. They are either simple or compound.

1. The simple personal pronouns are *I*, thou, he, she, it; with their plurals, we, ye or you, they.

I is of the first person, and denotes the speaker.

Thou is of the second person, and denotes the person addressed.

He, she, it, are of the third person, and denote the person or thing spoken of.

The personal pronouns are thus declined:

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
	Noin. Poss.			
 m. or f. masc. fem. 	I my or mine Thou thy or thine He his She her or hers It its	thee You him The her The	your or yours y their or theirs y their or theirs	you then. then

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The first form of the Possessive Case of the Personal Pronouns—my, thy, his, her, our, your, their, is used when the nour is expressed; as, my book. The second form—mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs, is used when the nour, is chitted; as,

this is your book, not mine. His is used either with or without the noun.

- 2. The word own, following the Possessive Case of the pronouns, may be taken with the pronoun as forming a compound emphatic possessive; as, his own book.
- 3. In proclamations, charters, editorial articles, and the like, we is frequently applied to one person.
- 4. In addressing persons, you is commonly put both for the singular and the plural, but has always a plural verb. Thou is used in addresses to the Deity, or any important object in nature, or to mark special emphasis; or in the language of contempt. The plural form ye, is now but seldom used.
- 5. The pronoun it, besides its use as the neuter pronoun of the third person, is also used indefinitely with the verb to be in the third person singular, for all genders, numbers, and persons; as, it is I, it is we, it is you, it is they; It was she, &c.
- 6. Hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, should never be written ler's it's var's, your's, their's.

2. The compound personal pronouns are myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself; with their plurals, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

These pronouns are used, without change of form, in the nominative and objective case. In the nominative they are *emphatic*, and are added to their respective personal pronouns or nouns, or are used instead of them, as, "I myself did it;" "himself shall come." In the objective, they are replective, showing that the agent is also the object of his own act; as, "Judas went and hanged himself." Ourself and yourself are used as compounds corresponding to re and you applied to individuals; as, "We ourself will follow," "You must do it yourself."

Parsing.—The personal pronoun may be parsed briefly thus: I is a pronoun of the first person, masculine (or feminine) in the nominative singular.

QUESTIONS.

What is a pronoun? How are pronouns divided? What is a personal pronoun? Why is it called personal? What are they? Decline the first—the second—the third. Of what person is I!—

thou?—le, sle, it! What does the first person denote?—the second?—the third? To what class do myself, thyself, &c., belong? In what cases are they used? How are they applied in the nominative?—in the objective? How is you applied !—thou?—it?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Go over the following list of pronouns and tell their person. Go over them again and tell their gender; again, and tell their number; again, and tell their case; and lastly, tell their gender, number, and case, together.
- I, thou, we, me, us, thine, he, him, she, hers, they, thee, them, its, theirs, you, her, ours, yours, mine, his, I, me, them, us, we, thou, thine, ye, ours, yours. Himself, yourselves, herself, themselves, ourself, yourself, itself.
- 2. Point out the pronouns in the following Exercise. Parse them by telling their gender, person, number, and case: thus. "me," a pronoun, masculine, first person, singular, in the objective.
- 3. Point out the nouns and parse them; the adjectices and parse them. Compare them.
- 4. Read over each sentence, and tell what each of the pronouns stands for; thus, me stands for the speaker; you for the person spoken to, &c.

Give me the pears you bought of him; I like them better than the apple he bought; it was sour. She told us what we said to her, and they heard her. Put it on, will you? He likes them because they are sweet. Take them to John. I gave them to her. We will do it, if you wish. The men said they would do it. The girl said she did not know them. The boy thought he knew them. You and I went with them to meet her after she had seen him. He and I can do it, though you can not. James bought that book; it is therefore his, and not hers.

- "Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth."
 "Honor thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long in the land which the Lord thy God giveth thee."
 "As ye would that others should do to you, do ye even so to them."
 - 5. Take an easy reading lesson, and go over it in the same way.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

Lesson 13.—Relative Pronouns.

1. A RELATIVE Pronoun is one that relates to, and connects its clause with, a noun or pronoun before it, called the *antecedent*; as, "The master *who* taught us."

The antecedent is commonly a noun or pronoun; sometimes a phrase, or clause of a sentence; as,

The boy who reads:

He who does well will be rewarded.

James is sick, which accounts for his absence.

2. The relative pronouns are who, which, that, and what. Who and which are alike in both numbers; and are thus declined:

Sing, and Plural, Sing, and Plural,
Nom. Who Which
Poss, Whose Whose
Obj. Whom Which

3. Who is applied to persons; as, the boy who reads:

And also to inferior animals, and things without life, when they are represented as speaking and acting as rational beings.

4. Which is applied to inferior animals, and things without life; as, the dog which barks; the book which was lost.

And also to collective nouns composed of persons; as, "the court of Spair, which;" "the company which." And likewise after the name of a person used merely as a word; as, "The court of Queen Elizabeth, which was but another name for prudence and economy."

Which was formerly applied to persons as well as things, and is so used in the common version of the Scriptures.

5. That is often used as a relative, instead of who or which. It is indeclinable, and applied both to persons and things.

6. What is applied to things only, and is never used but when the autecedent is omitted; as, "This is what I wanted"=that which I wanted.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE RELATIVE.

- 1. The office of the relative is twofold.—1st. It is used to connect its clause with the antecedent for the purpose of further describing it. Thus used, it is said to be additive; as, "Light is a body which moves with great celerity"—and it moves &c. 2nd. It is used to connect its clause with the antecedent for the purpose of limiting or restricting it like an adjective or adjunct. Thus used, it is said to be restrictive; as, "The man who is good is happy"—The good man is happy (267).
- 2. Whoever, whosever, whatever, and whatsoever, are used as compound relatives, and are equivalent to the relative and a general, or indefinite antecedent; as, "Whosevervonmitteth sin, is the servant of sin;" that is, "any one," or "every one who committeth sin," &c. "Whatsoever things are of good report;" i.e. "All things (without exception) which are of good report." [See An. & Pr. Gr. 752.]
- 3. Which and what are sometimes used as adjectives; as, "Tell me what book you are reading:" "Which things are an allegory." In this sense, which applies either to person or things, and in meaning is equivalent to this or these.
- 4. Who, and also which and what, without a noun following, are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns; as, 1 do not know who will be our next President.

Interrogative Pronouns.

Who, which, and what, when used in asking questions, are called Interrogative pronouns.

As interrogatives, *who* is applied to persons only; *which* and *what*, either to persons or things. *What* is indeclinable.

Who, which, and what, used responsively, are indefinite pronouns; as, "I know who wrote that letter."

Parsing.—The relative is parsed by stating its gender, number, case, and antecedent; (the gender and number being always the same as those in the antecedent) thus:

"The boy who."—" W'ho" is a relative pronoun, masculine, in the nominative singular, and refers to "boy" as its antecedent.

QUESTIONS.

What is a relative pronoun? What is the word to which it relates called? What is the proper use of the relative pronoun? What are the relative pronouns? What is who applied to? Why is that used as a relative? To what is it applied? What sort of a relative is what? What does it include? What sort of words are whoever, &e? When which and what are followed by nouns, what part of speech are they? What are the interrogative pronouns? Why are they called interrogative? As an interrogative, what is who applied to?—which?—In parsing the relative, what is mentioned? How are the gender and the number of the relative known.

EXERCISES.

- 1. Is it proper to say—the man who, or the man which? why?
 the dog who, or the dog which? why?
 the tree who, or the tree which? why?
 the family who, or the family which? why?
- 2. In the following sentences, point out the *relative*, and the word to which it relates; also the interrogatives.
- 3. What is the use of the relative in the first sentence? in the second? in the third? &c. (See Obs. 1, p. 31.)

The boy who studies will improve. I love the man who tells the truth, but all hate him who deals in false-hood. Do you remember the man whom we met? There is the book which you lost. It is the same book which you bought. That is the lady who has been kind to us, and whose hand is ever open to the poor. It is the hand of the diligent that maketh rich. He that giveth to the poor lendeth to the Lord. The temple which Solomon

built. Who gave you that book, which you prize so much? Which house is yours? He who preserves me, to whom I owe my being, whose I am, and whom I serve, is eternal.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.] Lesson 14.—Adjective Pronouns

There are three sorts of Adjective pronouns; viz., the Distributive, Demonstrative and Indefinite.

1. The Distributive pronouns represent objects as taken separately. They are each, every, either, neither. (See An. & Pr. Gr. 297-301).

2. The Demonstrative pronouns point out objects definitely. They are this and that,

with their plurals, these and those.
3. The Indefinite pronouns denote persons or things indefinitely. They are none, any, all, such, whole, some, both, few, many, several, one, other. The last two are declined like nouns.

OBSERVATIONS.

- The words included in these three classes should be regarded as pronouns only when they stand for nouns; as, All must die. When followed by the noun, they are not pronouns, but adjectives: as, Those books are yours.
- 2. That is sometimes a demonstrative, sometimes a relative, and sometimes a conjunction. It is a demonstrative when it points out a noun; as, That book is mine. It is a relative when it can be changed into who or which; as, It is the book that I bought. It is a conjunction when it connects sentences; as, I read, that I may learn.

QUESTIONS.

"I How, many sorts of adjective pronouns are there? Name them. What is a distributive pronoun? Name them—A demonstrative pronoun? Name them—A demonstrative pronoun? Name them—An indefinite pronoun? Name them. In how many different ways is "that" used? Give examples showing the use of that. In the sentence, "I think that, that that that boy parsed, is a conjunction;" state how each that is used. When are these words not pronouns, but adjectives? Give examples showing their use as adjectives and as pronouns.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise, point out the adjectives, the pronouns, and the nouns, and parse them.

My book, her shoes, your horse, their father, his brother, every hour, that table, these quills. This is my book; that book is yours. Where is my hat? These apples are good; give some to your brothers. I will give one to each. I have given them all away, every one. Every day try to do good to some person. This book will do as well as that one. Every boy should keep his own books. Do good to all men—injury to none.

Lesson 15.—Exercises on Nouns, Articles, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

1. In the following Exercise, point out the nouns, and parse them;—the adjectives, and parse them;—the pronouns, and parse them:

I found my hat upon your table; but where is yours? Who put that glove in my cap? Have you seen the book which my father gave to me? That rod of yours is longer than mine, but not so long as John's. Those trees have lost their leaves. Every book on that shelf is mine; I will give you a list of them. Keep this knife for my sake; it is a good one. All men are mortal; time waits for no one; a wise man will improve every moment to some useful purpose. An idle man will come to poverty; but he that is diligent increases his store. They that walk with the wise shall be wise; but a companion of fools shall be destroyed. Give to him that asketh thee, and from him that would borrow of thee, turn not thou away.

VERBS. 3

[1. Review thoroughly from Lesson 10, answering promptly and accurately all the questions.

2. Review from the beginning, reciting accurately all the definitions and rules, and answering the questions. This may require two or three recitations.]

Lesson 16.- Verbs.

- 1. A VERB is a word used to affirm the act, being, or state of its subject; as, I write; he is; time flies.
- 2. Verbs, divided according to the sense they express, are of two kinds; *Transitive* and *Intransitive*.
- 3. A Transitive Verb in the Active Voice expresses an act which passes from the subject to a person or thing called the object; as, James *strikes* the table. And when used in the Passive Voice, expresses an act done to the subject; as, The table is struck.
- 4. An Intransitive Verb expresses the being or state of its subject, or an act not done to another; as, I am, he sleeps, you run.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The use of the verb is to affirm or declare. That of which it affirms or declares is called its *subject*, or nominative.
- 2. Transitive verbs include all those which express an act that passes over from the actor to an object acted upon; as, He loves us. Here, "He" is the actor, "loves" expresses the act, and us, the ob

ject loved, or acted upon. The same thing can be expressed by another form; thus, "We are loved by him." Of these two forms of the verb, the first is called the active voice, and the second, the passive voice.

Intransitive verbs include all verbs not transitive, whether they express action or not; and they have only one form, namely, that of the active voice; as. I am; you walk; they run. A few have the passive form, but the sense is the same in both; as, "I am come," and "I have come."

- 3. Intransitive verbs are sometimes rendered transitive, by adding a nonn of the same, or similar signification with themselves, as an object; thus, intransitive, I run; transitive, I run a race.
- 4. The same verbs are used sometimes in a transitive, and sometimes in an intransitive sense; thus, transitive, "Charity thinketh no evil;" intransitive, "Think on me."
- 5. Transitive and intransitive verbs may be distinguished by the sense, as follows:
- 1st.—A transitive active verb requires an object after it to complete the sense; as. The boy studies grammar. An intransitive verb requires no object after it, but the sense is complete without it; as, He sits, you ride.
- 2d.—Every transitive verb can be changed into the passive form; thus, "James strikes the table," can be changed into "The table is struck by James." But the intransitive verb can not be so changed; thus, I smile, can not be changed into I am smiled.
- 3d.—In the use of the transitive verb, there are always three things implied; the actor, the act, and the object acted upon. In the use of the intransitive, there are only two—the subject or thing spoken of, and the state or action attributed to it.

ILLUSTRATION.—The verb is the most important part of speech. It is a necessary word in every sentence. Without it, we can neither affirm nor deny, nor express any fact or thought. It is therefore called the Veia, that is, the nord, by way of eminence, or of all others the most important. As we wish to express an act or state in a great variety of ways: as present, past, future, actual, contingent, conditional, &c., so there is a great variety of forms assumed by the verb in order to express these things. It is, therefore, very necessary tor the pupil to be well acquainted with this part of speech. At this stage, two things must be attended to; both of them very important.

1. The first thing is, to distinguish the verb from every other part of speech. This can easily be done, if the pupil will only remember that the office of the verb is to declare or make an assertion about its subject, not merely to express action; a word may express action and not be a verb: as, for instance, "I wish to work;" "His manner of reading is bad;" "The horse running through the field is a fine animal. In these examples. "to work" "reading," and "running," express action, but they are not verbs; they are merely words derived from verbs, and used, the first two, as Verbal Nonns, and the last as a Verbal Adjective. You must be careful not to confound verbals with verbs. Verbs, always, either directly or indirectly, make an assertion, and must have a word standing as the name of the thing about which the assertion is made. A verbal. on the contrary, never makes an assertion, it merely assumes the act, and stands related to the other words as a nonn or as an adjective. The words used in this manner, as verbals, are the Infinitive and Participial moods.

VERBS.

2. The second thing is, to know when a verb is transitive, and when intransitive. Now, when the verb tells what one person or thing does to another, or what is done to one person or thing by another, the verb is transitive. Thus, when it is said, "James eats apples," we know, first, that "eats" is a verb, because it affirms what James does; and secondly, that it is transitive, because it affirms what James does to the apples; or, when it is said, "Quebec was taken by Wolf." we can easily see that the verb is transitive, because the action is done to the subject. Quebec.

But when that which a person or thing does, is not done to another person or thing, the verb is intransitive. Thus, in the sentence, "James runs." we know that "runs" is a verb, because it affirms what James does; and that it is intransitive, because what James does is not done to any other person or thing.

3. Verbs that denote merely to be or exist, are always intransitive.

QUESTIONS.

What is a verb? How may verbs be divided according to the sense they express? What is a transitive verb?—an intransitive? What is the use of the verb? What is the subject of a verb? What does the word transitive mean?—intransitive? How many voices has the transitive verb?—the intransitive? How do you know which word in a sentence is a verb? How do you know whether it is transitive or intransitive? How will you distinguish a verbal from a verb? Give examples containing verbs. verbal nouns, and verbal adjectives, and distinguish between them.

EXERCISES.

- 1. In the following Exercises, point out the vcrbs, and tell how you know them to be verbs; thus, "learn" is a verb because it makes an assertion about its subject, boys; "rides" is a verb, because it makes an assertion about its subject, man, &c.
- 2. Tell which verbs are transitive, and which intransitive, and how you know them to be so; thus, "learn" is transitive, because it affirms what "boys" do to lesson; "rides" is intransitive, because what "a man" does, is not done to any other person or thing.

Boys learn lessons. A man rides. We read a book. My dog barks. The fire burns. The fire burns me. He took their apples. You saw them. We touched it. They strike her. I threw a stone at his window. They killed my rabbit. The horses eat their corn. The cows drink water. I can ride well. A ride improves the health. That man walks fast. A long walk tires me. I love her and you.

In the following sentences, it takes two, and sometimes three words to make the verb: and these two or three are always parsed together as one word.

I will water the garden. James can write a letter. You may ride on my horse. Robert will give a book to you. Yes, he will give you a book. You must light the candle. Your father has sold his horse. I have bought him. John will brush your coat. He should have brushed it before. James will have written his letter before night. He may have written it already.

[Review thoroughly the preceding Lesson.] Lesson 17.—Division of Verbs.

- 1. In respect of form, verbs are divided into Regular, Irregular, and Defective.
- 2. A REGULAR VERB is one that forms its Past tense in the Indicative active, and its Past participle by adding cd to the Present;

as, Present, act; Past, acted; Past participle, acted.

Verbs ending in e mute drop e before ed; as, love, loved, loved.

3. An IRREGULAR VERB is one that does not form its *Past tense* in the Indicative active, and its *Past participle* by adding *ed* to the Present; as, Present, *write*; Past, *wrote*; Past participle, *written*.

A DEFECTIVE VERB is one in which some of the parts are wanting. To this class belong chiefly Auxiliary and Impersonal verbs.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

The Auxiliary, or helping verbs, are those by the help of which verbs are inflected. They are the following, which, as auxiliaries, are used only in the present and the past tense, viz.:

Pres. Do, have, shall, will, may, can, am, must. Past. Did, had, should, would, might, could, was, —

The verb to be is used as an auxiliary in all its tenses to form the Passive Voice, and the Progressive Form of the Active; as, "The letter is written; I am writing."

Be, do, and have, are also principal verbs.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The auxiliary (or helping) verbs are so called, because, by their help, the verb is enabled to express varieties of time and manner of acting or being, which it could not do without them. The auxiliary always stands before its verb, and the two are regarded in parsing as one word: as, I will write, he has written, we may write, &c.

- 2. Of the auxiliaries, shall implies duty or obligation; will, purpose or resolution; may, liberty; can, ability. The past tense of these verbs is should, would, might, could; they, however, express time very indefinitely.
- 3. In affirmative sentences, will, in the first person, intimates resolution and promising; as, "I will go;" in the second and third it commonly foretells; as, "You will be happy."

Shall, in the first person, only foretells; as, "I shall go to-morrow;"—in the second and third, it promises, commands, or threatens; as, "Thou shall not steal" (335—344).

QUESTIONS.

How are verbs divided in respect to form? What is a regular verb?—an irregular verb?—a defective verb? What are the principal defective verbs? Why are auxiliary verbs so called? What verbs are principal verbs as well as auxiliary? How are the auxiliaries shall and will distinguished?

EXERCISES.

1. Put the following regular verbs into the Past tense and Past participle:

Fear, love, look, hope, show, learn, move, wash, clean, walk, desire, return, oblige, form, force, punish, support, turn, touch, disturb, place, try, deny, ery, delay.

2. Change the following verbs from the Past tense into the Present:

Marked, protected, composed, favored, turned, hated, mixed, believed, wounded, rushed, preached, hunted, crushed, warned, pleaded, loved, ended.

3. In the following list, tell which verbs are regular, and which are irregular; and why:

Present.	Past.	Past Particips:
Spoil	spoiled	spoiled
Go	went	gone
Take	took	taken
Write	wrote	written
Hope	hoped	hoped
Run	ran	run
Freeze	froze	frozen.
Spy	spied	spied
Obey	obeyed	obeyed

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

Lesson 18.—Inflection of Verbs.

The Accidents of Verbs are Voices, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons.

OF VOICE.

Voice is a particular form of the verb, which shows the relation of the subject, or thing spoken of, to the action expressed by the verb.

Transitive verbs have two voices, called the Active and the Passive.

1. The Active Voice represents the subject of the verb as acting upon some object; as, James *strikes* the table.

Here the verb "strikes," in the active voice, indicates what its subject "James," does to the object, table.

2. The Passive Voice represents the subject of the verb as acted upon; as, The table is struck. See Lesson 28.

Here the verb "is struck," in the passive voice, indicates what is done to the subject, "table."

- 3. Intransitive verbs have not a passive voice. Λ few admit a passive form, but not a passive sense; thus, I am come, means the same thing as, I have come.
- 4. When a verb, usually intransitive, is made transitive [Lesson 16, Obs. 3,] it is then capable of a passive voice; as, "My race is run."

ILLUSTRATION.—Both the active and the passive voice express precisely the same act, but each in a different way. With the active voice, the subject that is the person or thing spoken of, does the act, or is active; with the passive voice, the subject is acted upon, or is passive. The words active and pressive then strictly belong to the subject, but are properly used to distinguish those voices or forms of the verb which show that the subject acts or is acted upon; that is, the form of the verb which represents its subject as active, is called the Active voice; and that which represents its subject as passive, is called the Passive voice.

Remembering, then, that the subject or nominative of a verb is the person or thing spoken of, when, in any sentence, we see that that subject acts, we know that the verb is in the active voice; thus when we say, "Casar conquered Gaul," we see that "Casar." the person spoken of, is represented as acting, and therefore "conquered" is in the active voice. Again, when we say, "Gaul was conquered by Casar." the subject or thing spoken of is Gaul; it is represented as acted upon, and therefore "vers conquered" is in the passive voice.

QUESTIONS.

What belongs to the inflection of verbs? What is meant by voice? How many voices has the transitive verb in English? What are they? How does the active voice represent its subject? How does the passive voice represent it? What voice have intransitive verbs? Have they ever a passive form? Have they ever a passive sense? When intransitive verbs are made transitive, can they be used in the passive voice?

EXERCISES.

In each of the following sentences, the pupil may be questioned, as on the first, in the following manner: Who is the person spoken of in this sentence? Ans.—John. What is said of John? Ans.—Ite studies. Does the word studies represent John as acting, or as acted upon? Ans.—As acting. In what voice then is studies?"

Moods. 45

Ans.—Active voice. Change the sentence so as to make "grammar" the thing spoken of, and express the same meaning. Ans.—"Grammar is studied by John." Analyze this sentence in the same way as the other.

John studies grammar. Cain slew Abel. Noah built the ark. The temple was built by Solomon. Columbus discovered America. Pride ruins thousands. Most men are governed by custom. I have written a letter.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

Lesson 19,-- Moods.

(Mood is the manner in which the action

or state is represented.

Verbs have six moods; namely, the Indicative, Potential, Subjunctive, Imperative,

Infinitive, and Participial.

1. The Indicative mood simply declares the fact expressed by the verb, or interrogates respecting it; as, He loves; He is loved; does he love?

2. The POTENTIAL mood declares, (or asks a question respecting), not the fact expressed by the verb, but only its possibility; or the liberty, power, will, or obligation, of the subject in regard to it; as,

The wind may blow; I can swim; may we walk? Must I go?

3. The Subjunctive mood represents the fact expressed by the verb, not as actual, but as conditional, desirable, or contingent; as,

"If thy presence go not with us, carry us not up hence."—"() that he were wise?"

This mood is subjoined to another verb, and dependent on it.

4. The Imperative mood commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits; as,

Do this; Remember thy Creator; Hear, O my people; Go thy way for this time.

5. The Infinitive mood is a form of the verb with "to" 'before it, (expressing the action or state of the verb in its most unlimited sense), used as a verbal noun; as,

I love to skale; To attempt it would be vain; a desire to learn is praiseworthy.

6. The Participial mood embraces those forms of the verb called Participles, when used as verbal adjectives and verbal nouns; as,

There is a boy amusing himself; Devoted to study he soon excelled in every branch of knowledge; On seeing me he fled; There is glory in dying for one's country."

In the above examples, "annising" and "devoted" are verbal adjectives, and "seeing" and "dying" are verbal nouns.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The subjunctive mood differs from the indicative only in the second and in the third person singular of the present tense. The verb "to be." differs also in the past tense.

2. The imperative mood, strictly speaking, has only the second person, singular and plural; because, in commanding, exhorting, &e., the language of address is always used; thus, "Let him love," is equivalent to, "Let thou him love;" where Let is the proper imperative, and love the infinitive governed by it. [See Lesson 66, 1, 2]. The verbal noun in the form of the infinitive mood, may be used as nominative, or objective, but not as a possessive. [See Lesson 66, Sub-rules 1 and 2.]

QUISTIONS.

What is mood? How many moods are there? How does the Indicative mood express an action or slate?—the Potential?—the Subjunctive?—the Indicative?—the Participial? In what parts does the Subjunctive differ from the Indicative? How many persons has the Imperative mood? How is the Infinitive mood used? As a verbal noun, in what cases may it stand?

N.B.—Exercises on this and the following Lesson will be better understood after the pupil has gone through Lesson 23. They are therefore omitted here.

ri.

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

Lesson 20.—Tenses or Distinctions of Time.

Tenses are forms of the verb, which serve to point out the distinctions of time.

Time is naturally divided into Present, Past, and Future; and an action may be represented, either as incomplete and continuing. or as completed at the time spoken of. This gives rise to six tenses, only two of which are expressed in English by a distinct form of the verb. The others are formed by the aid of auxiliary verbs; thus.

PRESENT. \ Action continuing; as, I love, I do love, I am loving.

Action completed; as. I have loved.

Action continuing; as, I loved. I did love, I was loving. Past.

Action completed; as, I had loved.

Action continuing; as. I shall or will love. Action completed; I shall have loved.

The tenses in English are six; namely, the Present, the Present-perfect, the Past, the Past-Perfect, the Future, and the Futureperfect.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

The indicative mood has all tenses; they are used as follows:

- 1. The Present tense expresses what is going on at the present time; as, I love you. I am loved.
- 2. The Present-perfect tense represents an action or event as completed at the present time; or in a period of which the present forms a part; as, "John has cut his finger." "I have sold my horse." "I have done nothing this week."
- 3. The Past tense expresses what took place in past time; as, "God said, let there

be light;" "The ship sailed when the mail arrived,"

4. The Past-perfect tense represents an action or event as completed at or before a certain past time; as, "I had walked six miles that day;" "All the judges had taken their places before Sir Roger came."

The FUTURE tense expresses what will take place in future time; as, "I will see you again, and your hearts shall rejoice."

6. The FUTURE-PERFECT intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time, yet future; as "I shall have got my lesson before ten o'clock to-morrow."

NOTE.—The tenses inflected without the auxiliary have, are called SIMPLE or INDEFINITE tenses: those with the auxiliary have, in its various tenses, are called Compound or Definiti tenses. In the Active Voice, the Perfect or Past Participle is used only in forming the Compound or Definite tenses.

TENSES OF THE OTHER MOODS.

7. The Potential mood has, properly, all the six tenses; the Present, the Present-perfect, the Past, the Past-perfect, the Future, and the Future-perfect.

The figure and future-perfect, conjugated, with will in the first person and shall in the second and third, express a promise, determine in, or authority; they are, therefore, properly Potential, and the conjugated as tenses of the Potential Mood.

The terms in this mood indicate the time, not of the wal expressed by the verse but of the liberty, power, wal, or obligation, expressed by the auxiliary, or sign of the tense; thus, "I may write," does not ever seas the act of veriling as present, but only the liberty to write, expressed by the auxiliary may.

Hence the time expressed by the verb in this mood is less definite and depends not so much on the tense as on other words with which it stands connected. This is the case especially with the Past tense. [See An. & Pr. Gr. 428—432.]

- 8. The Subjunctive mood, in its proper form, has only the present tense. The verb to be has the present and the past; the Subjunctive, however, generally takes the same form as the Indicative and Potential. Lesson 65.
- 9. The Imperative mood may always be regarded as present; i. e. the command, &c., is present, though the doing of the act commanded is future.
- 10. The Infinitive mood has two tenses; the *Present* and the *Perfect*.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE TENSES.

- 1. The Present tense is used to express, 1st—the simple existence of the fact; as, "He speaks." 2nd—what is habitual or always true; as, "He takes snuff." 3rd—In historical narration, it is used for the past; as, Casar leaves Gaul." for "Casar left Gaul."
- 2. The Present-perfect is used, 1st—To express what has taken place at the present time, or in a period of time of which the present forms a part; as, "My father has arrived." 2nd—To express an act or state continued through a period of time receiving to, and including the present; as, "He has [now] studied six months." 3rd—To express an act long since completed, when the reference is not to the act of finishing, but to the thing finished as still existing: as, "Cicero has written orations."
- 3. The time indicated by the Past tense is regarded as entirely past, however near; as, "I saw him a moment ago." It is also used to express what was customary in past time; as, "she attended church regularly."
- 4. The Past tenses of the Potential, and the Subjunctive mood, are less definite in regard to time, than the same tenses in the Indicative.

QUESTIONS.

What are tenses? How is time naturally divided? In each of these, how may an action or state be represented? How many tenses are there in the English verb? How many has the Indicative mood? What are they? What does the present tense express?—the Present perfect?—the Past?—Past perfect?—the Future?—the Future-perfect?

How many tenses has the Potential mood?—the Subjunctive?—the Imperative?—the Infinitive? In what different ways is the Present tense used?—the Present-perfect?—the Past? Which are called the simple or Indefinite tenses? Which the compound or definite? In what tenses only is the perfect participle used in the active voice.

[Review four preceding Lessons, and answer promptly and correctly all the questions.]

Lesson 21.—The Participial Mood or Participles.

The Participial Mood has three tenses; the Present, the Past, and the Perfect; as, Loving, loved, having loved;—Being loved, loved, having been loved.

[See Analytical and Practical Grammar, 455.]

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The Present Participle active ends always in ing, and has an active signification; as, James is building a house. In many verbs, however, it has also a passive signification; as, The house was building, when the wall fell. [See An. & Pr. Gr. 456—457.]
- 2. The Past Participle has the same form in both voices. In the active voice, its signification is active; as, He has concealed a dagger under his cloak;—In the passive voice, its signification is prove; as, He has a dagger concealed under his cloak.
- 3 Fee Perfect Participle is always compound, and has an active signification 1 the active voice, and a passive signification in the passive voice
- 4. The participles of a transitive verb, when used as verbal adjectives or verbal nouns, still retain the government of the verb, so far as the words that may depend upon them are concerned. [See examples, An. & Pr. Gr. 462.]

5. Participles, laying aside the idea of time, and simply qualifying a noun, admit of comparison as any other adjective; as, An amusing—a more amusing—a most amusing story. A most devoted friend.

QUESTIONS.

How many tenses have the Participial mood? Has the participle in ing ever a passive signification? Give an example. What signification has the perfect participle? Give examples of participles used as verbal nouns. Give examples of participles as verbal adjectives. When do they admit of comparison?

[Before proceeding to the next Lesson, review thoroughly from

the beginning in two or three recitations.]

Lesson 22.-Number and Person.

- 1. Every tense of the verb, in all the moods (except the Infinitive and Participial, which being used as verbal nouns and verbal adjectives, are never used to make an assertion) has two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural; and each of these has three Persons, except in the Imperative, which has only the Second.
- 2. The First person asserts of the person speaking; its subject is always *I* in the Singular, and *we* in the plural; as, *I write*; *we* write.
- 3. The Second person asserts of the person spoken to; its subject is always thou in the singular, and ye or you in the plural; as, Thou writest; ye or you write.
- 4. The Third person asserts of the person or thing spoken of; its subject is any noun, or the pronoun he, she, it, or they; as, John reads; he walks; they run.

OBSERVATIONS.

- The first, second, and third persons plural, are always like the first person singular.
- 2. The second person singular of the present indicative active, ends in st or est; as, thou lovest; thou readest:—of the past, generally in st; as, thou lovedst. All the other persons in both numbers in this tense are alike.
- 3. Verbs that end in s, sh, ch, z, x, or o, form the third person singular of the present indicative active, by adding es, or, in the grave style, eth; as He teaches or teacheth. All others add s in the common style, and th or eth, in the grave style; as he loves, or loveth;—reads, readeth.
- 4. Verbs in y with a consonant before it, change y into i before the terminations est, es, eth, ed; but not before ing; as, try. triest, tries, trieth, tried, trying.

QUESTIONS.

How many numbers has each tense? How many persons are in each number? What mood has only the second person? Of whom does the first person assert? What is the subject in the singular?—in the plural? Of whom does the second person assert? What is its subject in the singular?—in the plural? Of whom or what does the third person assert. What is its subject? What parts in each tense are alike? How is the second person singular formed in the present indicative?—in the past tense? When is the third person singular of the present indicative formed by adding es, or eth? When by adding es, th, or th? How is it formed when the verb ends in y after a consonant?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Tell the second person singular of the following verbs, and how it is formed.
 - 2. Tell the third person, and how it is formed.
- 3. Prefix them to each verb, when put in the second person singular; as, "thou tellest;" and he to each, when put in the third; as, "he tells."

Tell, speak, sleep, walk, read, learn, smell, see, hear, taste, touch, handle, write, pay, eat, drink, warm, teach, go, do, fill, play, stand, sell, buy, study, copy.

4. In the following words, tell which are in the first person, and why;—in the second, and why;—in the third, and why.

5. Prefix to each verb, in the following list, the pronouns of the same person and number as the verb; as, I love, thou lovest, &c.

Love, lovest, loves, runs, runnest, sleep, teach, preaches, teachest, writes, write, cats, goes, goest, go, tell, teaches, speaks, read, readest, sews, pay, look, walks, jump, hop, skip, laughs, sing, cry, criest, study, studies.

Lesson 23.—Conjugation of Verbs.

The pupil should be thoroughly drilled in this Lesson, till he is able to tell every part at once and correctly—and to give promptly any part of the verb that may be required.

- 1. The *Conjugation* of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *moods*, *tenses*, *numbers*, and *persons*.
- 2. In the active voice, most verbs have two forms; the Common; as, I read; and the Progressive; as, I am reading. See Lesson 27, note.

Besides these, in the present and the past indicative active, there is a third form called the Emphatic; as, I do read, I did read. The other tenses are rendered emphatic by placing a greater stress of voice on the first auxilliary; as, I have read.—I am reading—it is read.

The Verb TO BE.

The intransitive irregular verb To BE, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, am.

Past, was. Past Participle, been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

l. I am.

We are.
 You are.

2. Thou art.3. He is.

3. They are.

5%

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, have.

- 1. I have been. 1. We have been. 2. Thon hast been. 2. You have been.
- 3. He has been. 3. They have been.

PAST TENSE.

- 1. I was. 1. We were.
- 2. Thou wast.* 2. You were. 3. He was. 3. They were.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign. had.

- 1. I had been. 1. We had been. 2. Thou hadst been. You had been.
- 3. He had been. 3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

(When used simply to express futurity.) Signs, shall, in the 1st-will, in the 2nd and 3rd.

- 1. We shall be, 1. I shall be.
- 2. Thou wilt be. You will be. 3. He will be. They will be.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, shall have, in the 1st--will have, in the 2d and 3d.

- 1. I shall have been. We shall have been.
- 2. Thou wilt have been. 2. You will have been. 3. He will have been.
 - 3. They will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. Signs, may, can, must.—Intlect with each.

Plural. Singular.

- 1. I may be. We may be.
- 2. Thou mayest be. 2. You may be. 3. He may be.

3. They may be.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, may have, can have, or must have.—Inflect with each.

- 1 may have been. We may have been.
- 2. Thou mayest have been. 2. You may have been. 3. He may have been. 3. They may have been.
- * We have not introduced "you was" in the conjugation; but analogy, national usage, and the authority of many of the first writers and grammarians, would have fully warranted us in introducing it. We might quote, at any length, such names as Walker, Webster, Jeffrey, Pope, Gay, Boswell, Judge Parker, &c., &c., in defence and support of it.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should.—Inflect with each.

- 1. I might be.
- 2. Thou mightst be.
- 1. We might be.
- 2. You might be.

3. He might be.

3. They might be.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have.-Inflect with each.

- 1. I might have been.
- 2. Thou mightst have been. 3. He might have been.
- 1. We might have been.
- 2. You might have been. 3. They might have been.

FUTURE.

(When used to express a determination, promise, authority, &c.)

Signs, will, in the 1st-shall, in the 2d and 3d.

- I will be.
- 2. Thon shalt be. 3. He shall be.

- 1. We will be. 2. You shall be.
- 3. They shall be

FUTURE PERFECT.

(When used to express a determination, promise, authority, &c.)

Signs, will have, in the 1st—shall have, in the 2d and 3d.

- 1. I will have been.
- 2. Thou shalt have been.
- 1. We will have been.? 2. You shall have been.
- 3. He shall have been.
- 3. They shall have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present tense.—(Subjunctive form.)* Plural.

Singular.

1. If I be. 2. If thou be. 3. *If* he be.

- 1. It we be. 2. If you be. 3. If they be.
- Past Tense.—(Subjunctive form.)

 If I were. 2. If thou were or wert. 1. If we were.

3. If he were.

2. If you were.3. If they were.

^{*} The Indicative form of the subjunctive in all the tenses is the same as the indicative, and the potential form the same as the potential, with the conjunction If prefixed, except in the Future, "shall" being used in all the persons in the indicative form; as, If I shall write, If you shall write, If he shall write. &c.; and " will" being used in all the persons of the potential form; as. If I will write, If you will write. If he will write.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singuler.

Plural.

2. Be, or be thou.

2. Be, or be ye or you.

INTINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

PERFECT TENSE.

To be.

To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being.

Past, Been. Plateer, Having been.

EXERCISES.,

1. Let the pupil tell the tense, mood, person, and number of the following words-parts of the verb to be: thus, "Am" first, singular, present, indicative.

2. Let him parso the same words: thus, "Am" is a verb, irregular; and was to be a tyranslrive; in the first, singular, present. indicative.

Am, is, art, wast, I was, they were, we are, hast been, has been, we have been, hadst been, we had been, you have been, she has been, we were, they had been.

I shall be, shalt be, we will be, thou wilt be, they shall be, it will be, thou wilt have been, we have been, they will

have been, we shall have been, am, it is.

I can be, mayst be, canst be, she may be, you may be, he must be, they should be, mightst be, he would be, it could be, wouldst be, you could be, he may have been, wast.

We may have been, mayst have been, they may have been, I might have been, you should have been, wouldst have been; (if') thou be, we be, he be, thou wert, we were.

Be thou, be, to be, being, to have been, if I be, be ye, been, having been, if we be, if they be, to be.

3. In the following sentences, parse the words in order; thus, "Snow" is a noun, the nominative singular, because the subject of "is." "Is" is a verb, irregular; am, was. been. intransitive; in the third, singular, present, indicative. "White" is an adjective. qualifying snow: compared, white, whiter, whitest.

Snow is white; he was a good man; we have been younger; she has been happy; it had been late; we are old; you will be wise; it will be time; if they be thine: be cautious: be heedful youth; we may be rich.

Lesson 24.—The Verb to LOVE.

The regular verb to love, in the common form, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Love.

Loved.

Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.*

Singular.

Plural. 1. We love.

1. I love. 2. Thou lovest.

2. You love. 3. They love.

3. He loves (or loveth).

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign. have.

1. I have loved.

1. We have loved. 2. You have loved.

2. Thou hast loved. 3. He has or hath loved.

3. They have loved.

PAST TENSE,†

1. I loved.

1. We loved.

2. Thou lovedst. 3. He loved.

2. You loved. 3. They loved.

*PRESENT TENSE. (Emphaice Form).

1. I do love. 2. Thou dost love. 1. We do love. 2. You do love.

3. He does or doth love.

3. They do love.

†PAST TENSE. (Limphatic Form).

I did love.

1. We did love.

Thou didst love.
 He did love.

You did love.
 They did love

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, had.

- 1. I had loved.
- 2. Thou hadst loved.
- 1. We had loved.
 - 2. You had loved.
- 3. He had loved. 3. They had loved.

TUTURE TENSE.

(When used to express simple futurity.) Signs, shall, in the 1st—will, in the 2nd and 3rd.

- 1. I shall love.
- 2. Thou wilt love. 3. He will love.

- 1. We shall love. 2. You will love.
- 3. They will love.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

(When used to express simple futurity.)

Signs, shall have, in the 1st-will have, in the 2nd and 3d. 1. We shall have loved.

- 1. I shall have loved.
- 2. Thou wilt have loved.
- 2. You will have loved.
- 3. He will have loved. 3. They will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT THISE.

Signs, may, can, must.—Inflect with each.

- 1. I may love.
- 2. Thou mayst love.
- 3. He may love.

- 1. We may love.
- 2. You may love. 3. They may love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, may have, can have, must have. - Inflect with each.

- 1. I may have loved.
- 2. Thou mayst have loved.
- 1. We may have loved. 2. You may have loved,
- 3. He may have loved.
- 3. They may have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should. Inflect with each.

- 1. I might love.
- 2. Thou mightst love.
- 3. He might love.
- 1. We might love.
- 2. You might love. 3. They might love.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have.—Inflect with each.

- I might have loved.
- 1. We might have loved.
- Thou mightst have loved.
 You might have loved.
 They might have loved.

FUTURE.

(When used to express 'a determination, promise, authority, &c.) Signs, will, in the 1st-shall in the 2nd and 3rd.

I will love.

1. We will love.

- 2. Thou shalt love.
- 2. You shall love. 3. They shall love.
- 3. He shall love.

FUTURE-PERFECT.

(When used to express a determination, promise, authority, &c.)

Signs, will have, in the 1st--shall have, in the 2nd and 3rd.

- 1. I will have loved. Thou shalt have loved.
- 2. You shall have loved.
 3. They shall? 1. We will have loved.
- 3. He shall have loved.
- 3. They shall have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present tense (Subjunctive form).*

1. If I love. If thou love. 3. If he love.

- 1. If we love. 2. If you love.
- 3. If they love.

PRESENT TENSE (Indicative form).

- If I love. 2. If thou lovest.
- 1. If we love. 2. If you love.
- 3. If he loves (or loveth.)
 - 3. If they love. PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.
- If I have loved.
- 1. If we have loved. 2. If you have loved.
- 2. If thou hast loved. 3. If he has or hath loved. 3. If they have loved.
 - PAST TENSE.
- 1. If I loved. If thou lovedst.

1. If we loved. 2. If you loved.

3. If he loved.

3. If they loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

- 1. If I had loved. 2. If thou hadst loved. 3. If he had loved.
- 1. If we had loved. 2 If you had loved. If they had loved.
- * The Present subjunctive is here given in two forms: 1st, in the subjunctive or eliptical form, used when both contingency and futurity are implied; and 2nd the indicative form, used when contingency only, and not futurity is implied. The subjunctive might be extended through the potential, as it is used subjunctively as well as the indicative, observing the difference in the use of shall and will.

ITTURE TENSE.

- 1. If I shall love.
- 2. If thou shalt love.
- 3. If he shall love.

- 1. If we shall love.
- 2. If you shall love. 3. If they shall love.

. OF BE-PERFECT TENSE.

- 1. If we shall have loved. If I shall have love i.
 - 2. If you shall have loved.
- If thou shalt have loved. 3. If he shall have loved. 3. If they shall have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

Common form. 2. Love, or love thou. 2. Love, or love ye or you. Emphalic form. 2. Do thou love. 2. Do ye or you love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, To love.

PERFECT. To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Loving. PAST, Loved. PERFECT, Having loved.

Parsing.—A verb is parsed by stating its form (whether regular or irregular), its kind (whether transitive or intransitive), principal parts if irregular, its person, number, tense, mood, and voice, if passive, and its agreement with its subject: thus,

"He loves." Loves is a verb, regular, transitive, third, singu-

lar, present indicative; agreeing with its subject he.
"He writes a letter." Writes is a verb, irregular; from write, perote, written; transitive, third, singular, present, indicative, agreeing with its subject he.

N. B. It is well in parsing, to state everything belonging to a word in as few words as possible, and always in the same order.

QUESTIONS.

What is the conjugation of a verb? How is a verb conjugated? Conjugate the verb love in the active voice. Say the indicative present--past future the present-perfect - the past-perfect-future-perfect. Say the first person singular, in each tense-the second—the third -the first person plural--the second—the third. Say the emphatic form-in the present -in the past. What are the signs (or auxiliaries) of the present-perfect ?-- the past perfeet ?-- the future ?-- the future-perfect ?-- the subjunctive present ? -present perfect ?- past ?--past-perfect ?--&c. What is the sign of the infinitive? What does the future indicative express? Take

it through the tense. What does the future potential express: Take it through the tense. Extend the subjunctive through its potential form.

EXERCISE I.

- 1. Go over the following Exercise, and tell the tense, mood, and voice of each verb; thus, "He loves," present indicative, active.
- 2. Go over it again, and tell the person and number; thus, loves, third person, singular.
- 3. Go over it again, and join these together: and so tell the person, number, tense, mood, and voice; as, loves, third, singular, present, indicative, agreeing with its nominative, naming the nominative.

N.B.—The pronoun is no part of the verb, but helps to show its person and number; and the auxiliaries (or signs) are not usually taken separately, though they might be; so that the two words and sometimes three, as in the past-perfect potential are parsed together as one word; thus, have loved, the present-perfect, indicative, active.

N.B.—This Exercise should be repeated till the pupil can do it correctly, rapidly, and easily, and without making mistakes, either in the number or order of the things to be stated.

He loves, if they love, I have loved, if you will love-thou teachest, they will learn, he shall teach, he has written, if I had given, James will go, if John may come, he might read, they would have studied, children play, boys studied, they did study, write thou, come ye, to sing, to have played, reading, sleeping, running, loved, learned, having loved, having gone, birds fly, horses galloped, the fire burns, the sun did shine, the moon has changed, if you be, if I were if he do, if they shall go, if they will be, if I can come, if he could have gone, he will come, he shall come, I know, I do know.

N.B.—Pupils may be required to make exercises of this kind for themselves.

EXERCISE II.

Before beginning this Exercise, let the pupil go back and review thoroughly Lesson 16, and the exercises on it: then

- Tell which words are verbs, and why; and whether transitive or intransitive, and why.
- Tell their tense, mood, voice, person, and number, as in the preceding Exercise.

3. Go over it again, and parse each verb by putting all these to-

-6

together; thus, lovest, is a verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, present, indicative.

He loves us, I will love him. Good boys will study their lessons.—Children love play. The dog killed my rabbit. James has written a letter. Cows eat hay. A fire warms the room. Bring some wood. I have studied grammar. Girls may write letters. Your sister shall sing. He would like to hear a song. Give that book to me. I will give this book to you. Lend me your pen. Children should obey their parents; they should love God. Remember the Sabbath day, to keep it. All men must die. Time waits for no man. Do good to all men. John will mend my pen; I will thank him. You would oblige me by assisting me to learn this lesson. Tell Henry to shut the door.

"And he opened his mouth, and taught them, saying, Blessed are the poor in spirit; for theirs is the kingdom of heaven. Blessed are they that mourn; for they shall be comforted. Blessed are the meek; for they shall inherit the earth. Blessed are they which do hunger and thirst

after righteousness; for they shall be filled.

EXERCISE 111.

1. The Nominative Case.

N.B.—A verb in the active voice, declares or asserts the action or state of some person or thing. That person or thing then is its subject, and is in the nominative case; thus, in the first sentence of the preceding Exercise, the word "loves," asserts what "ke" does; he, therefore, is its subject, and is in the nominative case.

Point out the verb in each sentence of the preceding Exercise; tell what word is its subject, and why. What case is the subject in?

2. The Objective Case.

A transitive verb in the active voice asserts what its subject does to some person or thing. That person or thing is the object of the verb, and is in the objective case. Thus in the above senence, "He loves us," loves is a transitive verb, and asserts what its subject, he, does to us. Us. then, is is object, and is in the objective case.

The nominative, or subject, is usually before the verb; the objective is usually after it.

Point out the transitive verbs in the preceding Exercise. Tell what word is the object in each sentence, and what case it is in.

EXERCISE IV.

Parsing.

Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order: the nouns as directed, Lesson 8:--the adjectives as directed. Lesson 11; --- the pronouns as directed, Lesson 12; --- and the verbs as directed in this Lesson.

Lesson 25.—Negative form of the Verb.

The verb is made to deny by placing the word not after the simple form; as, "Thou lovest not;" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound form; as, "I do not love." When two auxiliaries are used, not is placed between them; as. I would not have loved.

With the infinitive and participles, the negative is put first; as,

Not to love; not loving.

The simple form is seldom used with the negative. In the present and the past tense, the compound or emphatic form is more common. The following synopsis will show the manner of using the regative.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

2. Thou dost not love, &c. PRESENT. 1. I do not love. PRES. PERF. 1. I have not loved. 2. Thou hast not loved, &c. 2. Thou didst not love, &c. PAST. 1. I did not love. Past Perf.

1. I had not loved.
2. Thou hadst not loved, &c.

FUTURE.

1. I shall not love.
2. Thou will not love. &c.

FUT. Perf.
1. I shall not have
2. Thou wilt not have loved, &c.

loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

 Thou canst not love, &c.
 Thou mayst not have loved. 1. I can not love. Present. PRES. PERF. I. I may not have

loved. Se. 2. Thou mightst not love, &c. PAST. I. I might not love.

PAST. PERF. 1. I might not have 2. Thou mightst not have loved, loved. Sc.

1. I will not love. 2. Thou shalt not love. FUTURE.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. If I do not love. 2. If Thou do not love, &c. Present. The other tenses are the same as in the indicative and potential.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing. 2. Love not, or do not thou Plan. 2. Love not, or do not we 1070 love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. Not to love.

Present. 1. Do Hove?

Press Press 1 Have I loved 9

Perf. Not to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Not loving. Past. Not loved. Perf. Not having loved.

Lesson 26.-Interrogative Form of the Verb.

The verb is made to ask a question by placing the nominative or subject after the simple form; as. Lovest thou? and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound forms; as, Do I love? When there are two auxiliaries the nominative is placed between them; as, Shall I have loved.

The subjunctive, imperative, infinitive, and participles, can not have the interrogative form.

The simple form of the verb is seldom used interrogatively. The following synopsis will show how the verb is put into the interrogative form.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

2. Dost thou love? &c.

2 Hast thou loved 2 &c

T PROSET TOTAL	1. Tiate I fored.	A. Alast thou force . (cc.
Past.	1. Did I love?	2. Didst thou love? &c.
Past. Perf.	I. Had I loved?	2. Hadst thou loved? &c.
FUTURE.	I. Shall I love?	2. Shalt thou love? &c.
T3 T3	4. Ch. H. T. L 1 a 1 9.	o. Cl., 14, 41,, 1,, 1,, 3, 9, f. a.

Fut, Perf. 1. Shall I have loved? 2. Shalt thou have loved? &c.

PRES. PERF. PAST.	1. May I love? 1. May I have loved? 1. Might I love? 1. Might I have	 Caust thou love? &c. Canst thou have loved? &c. Couldst thou love? &c. Couldst thou have loved? &c.
PAST PERF.	loved?	2. Couldst thou have loved? &c.

FUTURE. 1. Shall I love? 2. Wilt thou love?

FUT. PERF. 1. Shall I have loved? 2. Wilt thou have loved?

Obs. Interrogative sentences are made negative by placing the negative either before or after the nominative : as. Do I not love? or, Do not 1 love? For the proper use of shell and will, in the interrogative form, see An. & Pr. Gr. 339-342.

QUESTIONS.

How is a very made negative? Where is the negative placed in the simple form? Where in the compound form? Where, when there are two auxiliaries? Where, in the infinitive and participles? Repeat the indicative present in the negative form throughout. Repeat the inture and future-perfect;—the other tenses.

How is the verb made interrogative? Where is the nominative placed in the simple form? Where, in the compound form? Where, when there are two auxiliaries? What parts of the verb can not be used interrogatively? Repeat the indicative present throughout, interogatively. Repeat the future. Repeat the other tenses. Repeat the future and future-perfect potential, interrogatively.

EXERCISES.

- 1. Put the verb, in the following sentences, into the negative form.
- 2. Put the verb, in the following sentences, into the interrogative form.
- 3. Distinguish the different parts of speech, and parse them, as in the preceding Exercise, IV.

I love you. You loved me. James studies Grammar. Your father has come. He will go soon. The ship foundered at sea. John would eat apples. Apples will grow on this tree. The horse will run a race. The fox had catched the goose. Rabbits ent clover. Study overcomes most difficulties. Labor promotes health. Wealth makes the man. Poverty scatters friends. The ships sail. The sun has set. The moon rose. The stars will shine.

 $\mathbf{N},\mathbf{B}.\mathbf{--Let}$ the pupils make similar exercives for themselves, and parse them.

Lesson 27.—Progressive form of the Active Voice.

The Progressive form of the verb is inflected by prefixing the verb to be, through all its moods and tenses, to the present participle; thus,

Present. 1. I am writing. Pres. Perf. 1. I have been writing.

Thou art writing. &c.
 Thou hast been writing, &c.

Pres. Perf. 1. I have been writing. 2. Tho Past. 1. I was writing. 2. Tho

2. Thou wast writing, &c. 2. Thou hadst been writing, &c.

PAST PERF. 1. I had been writing.
FUTURE. 1. I shall be writing.

2. Thou wilt be writing, &c.
2. Thou wilt have been writ-

Fut. Perf. 1. I shall have been writing.

ing. &c.

In this manner go through the other moods and tenses.

Note. Verbs which, in the common form imply continuance, do not usually admit the progressive form: thus, "I am loving" (if proper), would mean nothing more than, "I love."

EXERCISES.

1. Change the following verbs from the simple into the progressive form:

He writes, they read, thou teachest, we have learned, he had written, they go, you will build, I ran, John has done it, we taught, he stands, he stood, they will stand, they may read, we can sew, you should study, we might have read.

2. Change the following, from the progressive into the simple

We are writing, they were singing, they have been riding, we might be walking, I may have been sleeping, they are coming, thou art teaching, they have been eating, he has been moving, we have been defending, they had been running.

3. Parse the above verbs in the progressive form; thus, " We are writing:" " are writing," is a verb, irregular; write, wrote, written, transitive, first, plural, present, indicative, progressive torm.

Lesson 28.-Passive Voice.

The Passive voice is inflected by adding the past participle to the auxiliary verb to be, through all its moods and tenses, thus,

Pres., Am loved.

Past, Was loved.

Past Part. Loved

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Simpular.

- 1. I am loved. 2. Thou art loved.
- 3. He is loved.

PRESENT TENSE. Phiral.

- I. We are loved.
- 2. You are loved.
- 3. They are loved.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, have.

- I have been loved.
- 2. Then hast been loved.
- 3. He has been loved.
- 1. I was loved.
- 2. Thou wast loved.
- 3. He was loved.

- 1. We have been loved.
- 2. You have been loved. 3. They have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

- 1. We were loved.
- 2. You were loved.
- 3. They were loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, had.

- 1. I had been loved.
- 1. We had been loved.
- 2. Thou hadst been loved. 3. He had been loved.
- 2. You had been loved. 3. They had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs. shall, in the 1st-will, in the 2d and 3d. (Expressing simple futurity.)

- I shall be loved.
- We shall be loved.
 You will be loved.
- 2. Thou wilt be loved. 3. He will be loved.
- 3. They will be loved.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE. Signs, shall have, in the 1st—will have, in the 2d and 3d. (Expressing simple futurity.)

- 1. I shall have been loved.
- We shall have been loved.
 You will have been loved.
- 2. Thou wilt have been loved. 3. He will have been loved.
- 3. They will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, may, can, must.-Infleet with each.

Singular. 1. I may be loved.

- Plural. We may be loved.
 You may be loved.
- 2. Thou mayst be loved. 3. He may be loved.
- 3. They may be loved.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, may have, can have, must have .-- Inflect with each.

- I may have been loved.
 Thou mayst have been loved.
 You may have been loved. 3. He may have been loved. 3. They may have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should.—Inflect with each.

- 1. I might be loved.
- 1. We might be loved.
- 2. Thou mightst be loved.
- 2. You might be loved. 3. They might be loved.
- 3. He might be loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have.-Inflect with each.

- I might have been loved.
 Thou mights have been loved.
 You might have been loved.
 He might have been loved.
 They might have been loved.

FUTURE.

(Expressing a determination, authority, promise, &c.)

- I will be loved. 1. We will be loved.
- 2. Thou shalt be loved. 2. You shall be loved. 3. He shall be loved. 3. They shall be loved.

FUTURE-PERFECT.

(Expressing a determination, authority, promise, &c.)

- 1. We will have been loved. 1. I will have been loved.
- Thou shalt have been loved. 2. You shall have been loved. 3. He shall have been loved. 3. They shall have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE (Subjunctive form.)

Sinquiar.	Pura!.
1 16 1 1 - 1 - 1	1 12 1 1 1 1 1

- If I be loved. 1. If we be loved. 2. If Thou be loved.
- 2. If you be loved. 3. If he be loved. 3. If they be loved.

VAST TENSE (Subjunctive form.)*

- 1. If I were loved. 1. If we were loved.
- If thou were or wert loved. If you were loved. 3. If he were loved.

3. If they were loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sugmar. Phiral.

2. Be thou loved. 2. Be ye or you loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Perf. To have been loved. $Prese_m$. To be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being loved.

Past. Loved.

Perfect. Having been loved.

EXERCISE 1.

On the Pussive Voice.

- 1. Tell the lease, mood, person, and number of the following words in the passive voice :- change them into the active form.
 - 2. Go over the Exercise again, and parse each word in order.

^{*} The indicative form in all the tenses is the same as the indicative with the conjunction "if" prefixed, and the potential form the same as the potential, except in the case of "shall" and "will," as already pointed out; thus, If I am loved, If I have been loved. If I was loved, If I had been loved, If I shall be loved, If I shall have been loved. If I may be loved, If I may have been loved, If I might be loved. If I might have been loved, &c. &c.

They are loved; we were loved; thou art loved; it is loved; she was loved; he has been loved; you have been loved; I have been loved; thou hadst been loved: we shall be loved; thou wilt be loved; they will be loved; I shall have been loved; you will have been loved.

He can be loved; I will have been loved; thou mayst be loved; she must be loved; they shall have been loved; they might be loved; they shall be loved; ye would be loved; they should be loved; he shall be loved; I could be loved; I will be loved; thou mayst have been loved; it may have been loved; you shall be loved; you might have been loved; if I be loved; if thou wert loved; though we be loved; though they be loved. Be thou loved; be ye loved; you be loved. To be loved; loved; having been loved; to have been loved; being loved.

3. Change the preceding, from the passive to the active progres-

3. Change the preceding, from the passive to the active progressive form.

EXERCISE II.

On the Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, promiscuously.

- 1. In the following Exercise, tell which words are nouns-and why ;-which are adjectives or verbat adjectives-and why :which are pronouns - and why ;--which are verbs - and why.
- 2. Point out the verbs: tell waether transitive or intransitiveand why ;-active or passive-and why.
- 3. Go over again, and point out the nouns, and tell whether proper, common, or verbal—and why:—their gender—and why;—singular or plural—and why;—case—and why.

He has learned his lesson. I loved him because he was good. A good man will forgive those who may have injured him. Love your enemies; do good to them that hate you. Remember your Creator in the days of your youth. We are commanded to love our neighbour as ourselves. That book was printed in New York. The winter has been cold, but the ground was covered with snow. Columbus discovered America. America was discovered by Columbus. I have been studying grammar. It is never too late to learn that which is good and useful. Peter Parley has written some pleasing books. Good boys love reading. Study to understand what you read. Being seen there, he was suspected. He stood, leaning on his spade, and gazing on the bright clouds. I could not avoid expressing my concern.

4. Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order, as directed in preceding Exercises.

N.B.—It will now be important to review thoroughly and repeatedly from Lesson 23, particularly Lessons 23, 26, and 28, with the Exercises under them. This will require several recitations. And while that is going on, the pupil may also go forward with Lesson 29, conjugating from memory the irregular verbs, in such portions daily as the teacher may direct.

Lesson 29.—Irregular Verbs.

1. An Irregular Verb is one that does not form both its past tense and past participle by adding ed to the present; as, Am, was, been.

Present. Past. Past Participle. Abide abode abode Amwas been Arise arose arisen Awake awoke n* awaked Bear, to bring forth bare or bore Bear, to carry bare or bore borne Beat beat or beaten Begin began begun Bend bent R bent R Bereave bereft bereft R Beseech besonght besought Bid bade, bid bid, bidden Bind unbound bound Bite bitten, bit Bleed bled bled Blow blew blown Break broke, brake broken, broke Breed Bring brought brought Build rebuilt R built B Burn burnt i: burnt R Burst burst burst Buy bought bought Cast east

^{*} Those verbs which are conjugated regularly as well as irregularly, are marked κ

Present.	Past.	Past Participles.
Catch	caught R	caught R
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, to adhere	clave R	cleaved
Cleave, to spilt	clove or cleft	cloven or cleft
Cling	clung	elung
Clothe	clothed, clad	clad R
Come be-	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew R	crowed
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, to venture	durst	dared
Dare, to challenge	dared	dared
Deal	dealt R	dealt n
Dig	dug R	dug R
Do mis-un-	did	done
Draw	dre w	drawn
Dream	dreamt	dreamt n
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt R	dwelt r
Eat	ate, eat	eaten .
Fall be-	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	fiung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forg-t	forget	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	for-ook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get be-for-	gat <i>or</i> got	gotten or got
Gild	gilt R	gilt R
Gird be- en-	girt ĸ	girt R
Give for- mis -	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave en- R	graved	graven R
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung	hung*

^{*} Hang, to take away life by hanging is regular; as. The robber was hanged, but the gown was hang up.

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Present.	Past.	Past Participle
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove a	hoven R
Hew	hewd	hewn R
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold it with	held	held or holden
Hurt	limit	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt n	knelt n
Knit	knitn	knit or knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead mis-	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, to lie down	lay	lain or lien
Light	lighted or lit	lighted or lit
Load	loaded	laden R
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown R
Pay re -	paid	paid
Pen, to inclose	pent ĸ	pent R
Put	put	put
Quit	quit n	quit R
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	rode, ridden*
Ring	rang or rung	rung
Rise a-	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven r
Run	ran	1,1117
Saw	sawed	sawn r
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	sod R	sodden r
Sell	sold	sold

^{*} Ridden is nearly obsolete.

Present.	Past,	Past Participle.
Send	sent	sent
Set be-	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape mis-	shaped	shapea n
Shave	shaved	shaven r
Shear	shore R	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone R	shone R
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show*	showed	shown R
Shrink	shrank or shrunk	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang or sung	saag
Sink	sank or suuk	sunk
Sit	sat	sat or sittent
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	$_{ m slept}$	slept
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Sling	slang, slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit or slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown R
Speak be-	spake <i>or</i> spoke	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt R	spelt n
Spend mis-	spent	spent
Spill	spilt ĸ	split R
Spin	span, spun	spun
Spit be-	spat. spit	spit
Split	split	split
Spread be-	spread	spread
Spring	sprang or sprung	sprung
Stand with - &c.	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stride be-	strode or strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung

^{*} Shew. shewed, shewn.— pronounced show, &c. † Sitten and spitten are nearly obsolete. ‡ Strew and shew are now giving way to strow and show, as they are pronounced.

Present. Past.Past Participle. Strive strove Strew! bestrewed strewed or Strow bestrowed strown, strowed Swear swore, sware sworn Sweat sweat R sweat R Sweep swept swept Swell swelled swollen R Swim swam or swum SWIIII Swing swing swime Take be- &c. took taken Teach mis- retaught taught Tear untore or tare torn Tell told told Think bethought thought Thrive throve a thriven R Throw threw thrown Thrust thrnst thrust Tread trod trodden, trod Wax waxed waxen R Wear wore worn Weave wove woven Weep wept wept Wet wet R wet R Whet whet R whet a Win won won Wind wound R wound Work wrought R wrought, worked Wring wrning R wrung Write wrote written

Obs. The preceding list contains nearly all the simple irregular verbs in the English language.

QUESTIONS.

What is an irregular verb? Are any verbs both regular and irregular? Give an example. Since there is no list of regular verbs, how may we know what verbs are regular? Is "am" regular or irregular—and why?

EXERCISE 1.

- 1. Name the past tense and past participle of the following verbs: thus, take, took, taken.
- 2. Make a short sentence on the slate or blackboard, with each verb, in the present tense—in the perfect tense—in the past tense—in any tense; thus, We take breakfast early. John took my hat I have taken his coat.

Take, drive, ereep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, eatch, bereave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get

give, go, feel, forsake, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay, ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, slay, slide, smite, speak, stand, tell, win, write.

- 3. In the sentences made as directed, No. 2, tell which verbs are transitive, and which are intransitive—and why. Point out the subject in each sentence, that is, the person or thing spoken of, and call that the nominative. Tell which nouns or pronouns are in the nominative—and why;—in the objective—and why.
- 4. In each sentence put the verb in the emphatic form—in the progressive form—in the negative form—in the interrogative form—in the negative interrogative form.
 - EXERCISE II.
- 1. In the following Exercise, point out which verbs are regular, and which are irregular—and why.
- 2. Make short sentences with each verb, as in the preceding Exercise, and do with each as there directed, in Nos. 2, 3, 4.

Love, hope, trust, weep, throw, keep, brush, hunt, count, reckon, ask, sleep, eat, drink, spin, save, go, teach, wipe, am, draw, bruise, water, know, wash, spoil.

- 3. Take the sentences containing transitive verbs, and express the same idea by the passive form; thus, suppose the sentence to be "James loves praise;" passive form, "Praise is loved by James."
 - 4. Parse the sentences so changed.

Lesson 30.—Defective and Impersonal Verbs.

Defective verbs are those in which some of the parts are wanting. They are irregular, and most of them are used as auxiliary verbs. They are,—

		,			
Present.	Past.	Past Part.	Present.	Past.	Past Part
Can	could		Shall	should	
May	might		Will	would	
Must			Wis	wist	
Ought			Wit or \	wot	
Quoth	quoth		Wot f	1706	
		T	D		

Imperative, -- Beware.

2. IMPERSONAL verbs are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They

are preceded by the pronoun it, and are always in the third person singular; as, it seems, it becomes, &c.

To this head may be referred such expressions as, Il hails, it snows, it rains, it lunders, it behoordh, it irkelh; and perhaps also, melhink, methought, mescems, mescemed, in which, instead of it, the first personal pronoun in the objective case, me, is prefixed to the third person singular of the verb.

QUESTIONS.

What is a defective verb? Are they regular or irregular? What are they? What tenses do the most of them have? What tense has must?—ought? Is it proper to say, "I had ought to read?" Why? What is an impersonal verb? By what are they preceded? In what person and number are they? What sort of words are methinks, mescems, &c.

[Review the preceding Lesson.]

Lesson 31.—Adverbs.

An Adverb is a word joined to a rerb, an adjective, or another adverb, to modify it, or to denote some circumstance respecting it; as, Ann speaks distinctly; she is remarkably diligent, and reads rery correctly.

 $\Lambda dverbs$ have been divided into various classes, according to their signification. The chief of these are such as denote,

- 1. Quality or Manner simply; as, well, ill, bravely, prudently, softly, with innumerable others, formed from adjectives by adding ly, or changing le into ly; thus lame, tamely; sensible, sensibly, &c.
 - 2. Place; as, here, there, where; hither, thither; hence, &c:
 - 3. Time: as, now, then, when: seon, often, seldom: ever, &c.
 - 4. Direction; as, upward, downward, backward, forward, &c.
 - 5. Negation; as, nay, no, not, nowise, never.
 - 6. Affirmation; as, verily, truly, undoubtedly, yea, yes.
 - 7. Uncertainty; as, perhaps, perudventure, perchance.
 8. Interrogation; as, how, why, when, wherefore, &c.
 - 9. Comparison; as, more, most, ; less, least; as, so, thus, &c.
 - 10. Quantity: as, much, little, enough, sufficiently.
 - 11. Order; as, first, secondly, thirdly, &c.
 - 12. Conjunctive Adverses; as, when, where, how, while, &c.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The chief use of adverbs is to shorten discourse, by expressing in one word what would otherwise require two or more; as, here, for "in this place;" nobly, for "in a noble manner," &c.
- ~2. Some adverbs admit of comparison like adjectives: as, soon, sooner, soonest; nobly, more nobly, most nobly. A few are compared irregularly; as. well, better, best: badly, or ill, worse, worst.
- 3. Some words become adverbs by prefixing a, which signifies at, or on; as, abed, ashore, afloat, aground, apart.
- 4. In comparison, the antecedents as and so are usually reckoned adverbs; the corresponding as and so are conjunctive adverbs, thus, It is as high as Heaven.

Circumstances of time, place, manner, &c., are often expressed by two or more words constituting an adverbial adjunct, or adverbial phrase; as, in short, in time, in general, at most, at least, at length, not at all, by no means, in vain, in order, long ago, by and by e, to and fro, &c.

6. A Conjunctive Adverb usually connects two sentences and modifies the verb in each; as, "I will see you when you come" "Tell me how it is done." "I cannot go till I have finished the work."

Parsing.—An adverb is parsed by stating its class, and the word which it modifies; thus,

"Ann speaks distinctly," Distinctly is an adverb of manner, and modifies "speaks."

QUESTIONS.

What is an adverb? In the sentence, "Ann speaks distinctly," which is the adverb? Why? Into how many classes are adverbs commonly divided? Name the first three—the second three—the next three—the last three. How are adjectives changed into adverbs? What is the chief use of adverbs? Are any adverbs compared like adjectives! Give an example. Are any compared irregularly? Give an example. What is an adverbial phrase? Give examples. How are such phrases to be parsed? How are adverbs parsed? What is a conjunctive adverb? How are conjunctive adverbs used? Give examples illustrating the use of conjunctive adverbs.

EXERCISE 1.

1. In the following list of adverbs, point out the class to which each belongs.

2. Compare those that admit of comparison.

3. Make a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the adverbs in the following list; and parse the sentences so made.

Here, there, softly, boldly, wisely, seldom, upward, once, twice, hitherto, yesterday, how, more, little, secondly, enough, perhaps, yes, no, truly, not, already, hence, whence, better, sufficiently, wisely, somewhere.

EXERCISE II.

1. In the following sentences, tell what words are nouns, and why—adjectives, and why—pronouns, and why—verbs, and why—whether regular or irregular, and why—transitive or intransitive, and why.

2. Which words adverbs? and why? What words do they

modify?

Peter wept bitterly. He is here now. She went away yesterday. They came to-day. They will perhaps buy some to-morrow. Ye shall know hereafter. She sang sweetly. Cats soon learn to eatch mice. Mary rose up hastily. They that have enough may soundly sleep. Cain wickedly slew his brother. I saw him long ago. He is a very good man. Sooner or later all must die. You read too little. They talk too much.

Lesson 32.--Prepositions.

A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or a pronoun depending upon it, and some other word in the sentence; as,

"Before honor is humility." "They speak concerning virine." In these sentences the preposition, "before," points out the relation between "honor" and "humility;" and "concerning" points out the relation between "speak" and "virtue."

Note.—Instead of a noun or pronoun, a preposition may be followed by any word or phrase, or a clause of a sentence, used as a substantive; as, "We are about to depart."—" Honored for having done his dety."—"The crime of being a young man." An. & Pr. Gr. 540.

The words commonly used as Prepositions are contained in the following list:

About	Below	From	Through
Above	Beneath	1n	Throughout
Across	Beside)	Into	Till
After	Besides (Notwithstandin	gTo
Against	Between	Of	Touching
Along	Betwixt	Off	Toward)
Amid)	Beyond	On	Towards (
Amidst ∫	But	Out of	Under
Among)	By	Over	Underneath
Amongst \	Concerning	Past	Until
Around	Down	Pending	Unto
At	During	Regarding	Up
Athwart	Ere	Respecting	Upon
Bating	Except	Round	With
Before	Excepting	Save	Within
Behind	For	Since	Without

OBSERVATIONS ON PREPOSITIONS.

- 1. Every preposition requires the noun or pronoun depending upon it to be in the *objective case*. When any word in the preceding list does not govern an objective case, it is not in that particular instance a preposition, but an adverb or a conjunction, as the case may be.
- 2. In such phrases as cast up, hold out, full on, the words up, out, on, may be considered as a part of the verb, rather than as prepositions or adverbs.
- 3. Of the words related, that before the preposition is called the antecedent term of the relation; and that which follows it is called the subsequent term, or the regimen of the preposition, because governed by it in the objective case.

Parsing.—The preposition is parsed by stating what part of speech, and the words between which it shows the relation; thus,

"Before honor is humility." "Before" is a preposition, and shows the relation between "honor," and "humility."

QUESTIONS.

What is a preposition? In what case is the noun or pronoun depending on a preposition? When an objective does not follow a word commonly used as a preposition, what part of speech will it

be? What is the related word before the preposition called?—the one after it?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Point out the prepositions in the following exercises.
- 2. Point out the noun or pronoun depending on the preposition, and the word to which it is related; thus, "I went from Albany to New York." The preposition from shows the relation between the verb "went" and Albany. So also, to shows the relation between the verb went and New York.

I went from London to Bath. The King walked about the garden with his son. They dined without me. I fell off a ship into the river near (to) the bridge. This box of wafers is for you. Charles put it upon the table against the inkstand. Turn down the lane through the gate. I shall go up the road after him. Run to that tree near the house. It stands between the trees. Put it on the table at the side of the house. I found the knife among the ashes under the grate. Sit by me. John is at School. They all went except me.

3. Parse the words in the preceding Exercises.

Lesson 33.—Conjunctions.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, or sentences; as,

"You and I must study; but he may go and play." "Two and two make four." Of him. and through him, and to him, are all things.

Conjunctions are of two kinds; Copulative and Disjunctive.

A LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.

- 1. Copulative.—Also, and, because, both, for, if, since, that, then, therefore, wherefore.
- 2. DISJUNCTIVE.—Although, as, as well as, but, either, except, lest, neither, nor, not-withstanding, or, provided, so, than, though, unless, whether, yet, still.

Obs. The copulative conjunctions connect things that are to be taken together; as, "You and I (i.e. both of us) must go." The disjunctive conjunctions connect things that are to be taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest: as, "You or I (i.e. the one or the other, but not both) must go."

Parsing.—Conjunctions are parsed by stating to what class they belong, and the words or sentences which they join together; thus,

"You and I must study." And is a conjunction, copulative, and connects You and I.

QUESTIONS.

What is a conjunction? How many kinds of conjunctions are there? What are the copulative?—the disjunctive? How do these two classes differ? How are conjunctions parsed?

EXERCISES.

- Point out the conjunctions in the following Exercise, the class to which each belongs, and the words or sentences which they connect.
 - 2. Parse all the words in order.

Henry and Charles read their lessons. I or he will be there. I will be with you unless you call. I slept well though the dog barked. Read that you may learn. John says that he will do it. As he writes, so do I read: for I am fond of reading. Neither the boys nor the girls are asleep. I would call if I could, but I can not. Take care lest you fall. Two and two make four. He is better than I thought he was, though he behaved ill. Since that has happened I must go. Do to others as you would that they should do to you.

Lesson 34.—Interjections.

-An Interjection is a word used in exclamations, to express some emotion of the

mind; as, Oh! what a sight is here! Well done!

A LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

Adieu! ah! alas! alack! away! aha! begone! hark! ho! ha! he! hail! halloo! hum! hush! huzza! hist! heydey! lo! O! Oh! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day! &c.

OBSERVATIONS ON INTERJECTIONS.

- 1. The Interjection is thrown in among the other words in a sentence, but does not affect their construction.
- 2. O is used to express wishing or exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or a pronoun, in a direct address; as, "O virtue! How amiable thou art!" Oh is used detatched from the word, with a point of exclamation after it. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise; as, "Oh! what a sight is here."
- Parsing.—Interjections are parsed by naming them as such, stating why, and the emotion expressed.

QUESTIONS.

What is an Interjection? Name some of them. Does the interjection affect the construction of the other words in a sentence? How do O and Oh differ in meaning? How, in the manner of writing them? How are interjections parsed?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Point out the Interjections in the Exercises.
- 2. Name all the other parts of speech, and parse them.

Hah! I am glad to see you. Well-a-day! I did not expect this. Alas! I am ruined. Indeed! Is that true? What! is it possible? Lo! there he is. Hem! I do not think so. Ah! you are a happy fellow. Hush! what was that? Ha, ha, ha, how laughable that is! Ho! come this way? Ah! poor fellow, he is to be pitied. Hurrah! we have finished our lesson. Come! now for the next. O king! hear me. Oh! he is killed.

Lesson 35.—How to distinguish the Parts of Speech.

- 1. The pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, are so few in number that they may be easily committed to memory; and, should any one of the list be, at any time, used as a different part of speech, the manner in which it is used, as compared with the definitions, will readily show to which class it belongs.
- 2. The other four, namely, the noun, adjective, verb, and adverb, will be best distinguished by comparing their meaning and use with the definitions of these parts of speech in their place: thus,

1st. Every word that is the name of anything, is a Noun; because

"A noun is the name of anything."

- 2d. A word that qualifies a noun by describing, limiting, or distinguishing it, is an adjective; because, "An adjective is a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a noun."
- 3d. A word that affirms what a person or thing does, or is, or what is done to a person or thing, is a verb; because, "a verb is a word used to affirm the act, being, or state of its subject."
- 4th. A word that modifies another by expressing a circumstance of time, place, manner, &c., is an Adverb; because "An adverb," &c. [See definition, Lesson 31.]

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Many words are sometimes to be regarded as one part of speech, and sometimes as another, according to their meaning and use in the place where they are used; thus,
- That, {
 Demonstrative Adjective; as, "Give me that book."
 Relative Pronoun; as, "It is the same that I bought."
 Conjunction; as, "I am glad that you are come."
- Much, { Adverb; as, "It is much better to give than to receive." Adjective: as, "In much wisdom is much grief." Noun; as, "Where much is given, much is required."

(Conjunction; as, "Since we must part."

Since. Preposition; as, "Since that time."
Adverb; as, "Your friend has gone long since."

Conjunction : as, "Poor but honest."

But, Preposition: as, "All but one."

Adverb; as, "He has but just enough."

QUESTIONS.

How may we most readily distinguish pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections? How do you distinguish the noun from other parts of speech?—the adjective?—the verb?—the adverb?

Lesson 36-Parsing.

Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its elements, or parts of speech, stating their accidents or properties, and pointing out the connection between them, or the relation which they bear to each other.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

In order to parse a sentence, it is necessary to understand it. The sentence being understood, in parsing it, let the following general principles be remembered, viz.,

- 1. Every Adjective and Adjective word belongs to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood.
 - 2. The subject of the verb, i.e., the person or thing spoken of, is in the nominative case.
 - 3. Every verb must have a subject or nominative, i.e., something of which it affirms, expressed or understood.
 - 4. Every transitive verb in the active voice, and every preposition, governs a noun or pronoun in the objective case; and every objective case is governed, either directly or indirectly, by a transitive verb in the active voice, or by a preposition.
 - 5. Every infinitive mood is a verbal nonn used as the subject of a verb, governed as any other noun by a verb, noun, or preposition.

QUESTIONS.

What is parsing? What is necessary before parsing a sentence? To what does every adjective and adjective word, &c., belong? In what case is the subject of a verb? When a noun or pronoun in the nominative case is spoken of, what must it have? What must every verb have? What case does every transitive verb in the active voice, and every preposition govern? By what is the objective case always governed?

Lesson 37.—Mode of Parsing.

- "Give instruction to a wise man, and he will be yet wiser."
- "Give" is a verb; irregular. give, gave, given, transitive, second, singular, present, imperative; agreeing with its subject thou understood; according to Rale (VII). Repeat the rule.
- "Instruction" is a noun; common, neuter, third, singular, and objective of give; according to Rule (X). Repeat the rule.
- "To" is a preposition, expressing the relation between give and meta.
- " A" is a definite adjective, or indefinite article, belonging to $man. \ (Rule \ III.)$
- "Wise" is an adjective; positive degree, compared, wise, wiser, wisest; and belongs to man. (Rule II.)
- " Man " is a noun ; common, masculine, third, singular, objective of " to." (Rule XI.)
- "And" is a conjunction, connecting the two sentences. Give instruction, &c.
- "He" is a personal pronoun; masculine, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent, man, (according to Rule IV.) and nominative case, the subject of will be. (Rule VI.)
- "Will be" is a verb; irregular, am. was, been intransitive, third, singular, future, indicative, agreeing with its subject, he (Rule VIII.)
- "Yet" is an intensive adverb, modifying wiser.
- "Wiser" is an adjective, comparative degree; wise. wiser, wisest; and belongs to he. (Rule II)

As a further exercise, (for the purpose of securing familiarity with the definitions, &c.) the pupil may be required to give a reason for everything affirmed in the preceding model; thus,

"Give," a verb, because it affirms or asserts; irregular, it does not form its past tense and past participle by the addition of "ed:" transitive—the ac ion passes over to an object; imperative mood, it commands, second singular, agreeing with its subject, "thon." According to Ruie—A verb must agree with its nominative in number and person—so on with the other words.

Lesson 38.—Exercises in Parsing.

After the same manner as in the preceding Lesson, parse and practise on the following Exercises, giving the Rule of Syntax bearing on the construction of each word.

MAXIMS FOR YOUNG AND OLD.

I. EARLY PIETY.—Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth; while the evil days come not, nor the years draw nigh, when thou shalt say, I have no pleasure in them.

Children, obey your parents; honor thy father and

mother, is the first commandment with promise.

A wise son heareth a father's instruction, but a scorner heareth not rebuke. The eye that mocketh at his father, and despiseth to obey his mother, the ravens of the valley shall pluck out, and the young eagles shall cat it. A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother. Whose leveth instruction leveth knowledge, but he that hateth reproof is brutish.

II. EDUCATION.—Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it.

Quintilian recommends to all parents the timely education of their children; advising to train them up in learning, good manners, and virtuous exercises; since we commonly retain those things in age which we entertained in youth.

'Tis education forms the common mind; Just as the twig is bent, the tree's inclined.

An industrious and virtuous education of children is a better inheritance for them than a great estate.

III. Prosperity and Adversity.—If I must make choice either of continual prosperity or adversity, I would choose the latter; for in adversity no good man can want comfort, whereas, in prosperity, most men want discretion. Adversity overcome, is the greatest glory; and,

willingly undergone, the greatest virtue; sufferings are but the trials of gallant spirits.

- IV. Anger.—The continuance of anger is hatred; the continuance of hatred becomes malice; that anger is not warrantable which has suffered the sun to go down upon it. Let all men avoid rash speaking. One unquiet, perverse disposition, distempers the peace and unity of a whole family, or society—as one jarring instrument will spoil a whole concert.
- V. Riches.—Riches beget pride; pride, impatience; impatience, revenge; revenge, war; war, poverty; poverty, humility; humility, patience; patience, peace; and peace, riches.

The shortest way to be rich, is not by enlarging our estates, but by contracting our desires. A great fortune in the hands of a fool, is a great misfortune. The more riches a fool has, the greater fool he is.

PERSEVERANCE.

It is astonishing to see how much can be done by perseverance. Jessie is not so smart as either of her sisters, yet, it strikes me, she will grow up the most sensible woman of the three; and what do you think is the reason? Why, because she never says she can do a thing, but tries, over and over again, till she does it. She is not quick, nor is her memory very good; therefore, it is a great trouble to her to learn a lesson by heart; but yet she is generally better prepared than the others. Though Louisa can learn a page of history in ten minutes, and Clara went twice through the grammar before Jessie got to the fiftieth page, yet these quick folks often forget as fast as they learn, and, like the hare in the fable, that ran a race with the tortoise, they are left behind at last.—Useful Stories.

WASHINGTON AND HIS MOTHER.

Young George was about to go to sea as a midshipman; everything was arranged, the vessel lay opposite his father's house, the little boat had come on shore to take him off, and his whole heart was bent on going. After his trunk had been carried down to the boat, he went to bid his mother farewell, and he saw the tears bursting from her eyes. However, he said nothing to her; but he saw that his mother would be distressed if he went, and perhaps never be happy again. He just turned round to the servant, and said, "Go and tell them to fetch my trunk back. I will not go away to break my mother's heart." His mother was struck with his decision, and she said to him "George, God has promised to bless the children that honor their pareuts, and I believe he will bless you."

The selections in prose and poetry, which have been appended to this edition, will furnish suitable matter for further exercises in parsing to any extent that may be thought necessary before entering fully on the Third Part. When the pupils show familiarity with the routine of parsing, they should be required to point out only the construction of the words. A most useful and interesting exercise, combining the principles both of analysis and parsing, its trace the connection backwards between a word in the latter part of the sentences, with a word in the former part; thus, for example, take the sentence—"Remember now thy Crator in the days of thy Youth;" trace the connection between "Youth" and "remember"—Youth completes "of "—of completes "days"—days completes "in"—in completes "remember."

PART THIRD.—SYNTAX.

Lesson 39.—General Principles of Syntax.

SYNTAX is that part of Grammar which treats of the proper arrangement and connection of words in a sentence.

A SENTENCE or PRODOSTRION, is a verb and its subject together with the words that modify them : as, "Man is mortal."

A Phrase is any combination of words, in accordance with usage, which is not a sentence; as, "In truth,"--" To say the least."

A SCHSTANTIVE PURASE is one which, in the construction of a sentence, supplies the place, and performs the office of a noun, being the subject of a verb, or the object of a transitive active verb

or preposition. &c. &c.; as, " To do good, is to be happy;" " To do good, torget not," &c.

An Adjunct is a prepositional phrase as related to its principal or antecedent term; as, The waters of Jordan; They came to Corinth.

Sentences are of four kinds: Declaratory, Interrogatory, Imperative, and Exclamatory.

All sentences are either simple or compound; independent or dependent.

A simple sentence contains only a single affirmation : as. " Life is short."

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences connected together; as, "Life, which is short, should be well improved." For the definition of independent and dependent sentences, (see page 95.)

Lesson 40.-I. Analysis of Sentences.

A simple sentence or proposition consists of two parts—the subject and the predicate.

The <u>subject</u> is that of which something is affirmed; as, *Snow* is white; *Time* flies.

The *predicate* is that which is affirmed of the subject; as, Snow is white; Time flies.

The subject is commonly a noun or pronoun, but it may be an infinitive mood, a participle, or a clause of a sentence; God is good: he does good; to lie is base, lying is base; that one should lie, is base.

The predicate properly consists of two parts: the attribute affirmed of the subject, and the copula, by which the affirmation is made. Thus, in the sentence, "God is love"—God is the subject and is love is the predicate, in which, love is the attribute, and is, the copula.

When a verb does not complete the predicate, but is used as a copula only, it is called a copulative verb; as, "Home is sweet;" when it includes both attribute and copula. as it most frequently does, it is called an attributive verb; as, "Time flies." The copulative verbs are such as, to be, to become, to seem, to appear, and the passives of deem, style, call, name, consider. de. To be, and to appear, are sometimes attributive verbs; as, There are lions in Africa; The stars appear.

QUESTIONS.

What is syntax? What is a sentence?—give an example; a phrase?—give an example; a substantive phrase?—give an example; an adjunct?—give an example. How many kinds of sentences are there? What are they?—give an example of each. What is a simple sentence?—give an example; a compound sentence?—give an example. What are the parts of a simple sentence?—give an example. What is the subject?—give an example: the predicate?—give an example. What is the subject commonly?—give an example of each. Of what does the predicate consist? What is the attribute?—give an example: the copula?—give an example. Are both ever expressed by one word?—give an example. What is the verb then called?

EXERCISES.

In the following, which are sentences? and which are phrases? and why?

In the sentences, mention the subject—the predicate, and why. Snow is white. Ice is cold. Time flies. Life is short. In truth. God is good. Home is sweet. To be sure. Truth will prevail. Birds fly. The fields are green.

Lesson 41.-The Subject.

I. The subject of a proposition is either grammatical or logical.

The grammatical subject is the person or thing spoken of, unlim-

ited by other words; as, Knowledge is power.

The logical subject is the person or thing spoken of, together with all the words or phrases by which it is limited or defined. Thus, in the sentence, "Every man at his best state is vanity," the gramm titeal subject is "man:" the logical, "Every man at his best state."

When the grammatical subject has no limiting words connected with it, then the grammatical and logical subject are the same; as, God is good.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, which is the grammatical, and which the logical subject?

Point out the subject and the predicate in each.

The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom. All men have not faith. The memory of the just is blessed. Happy is the man that findeth wisdom. The

blessing of the Lord maketh rich. Wise men lay up knowledge. A man's pride shall lay him low.

II. The subject of a proposition is either simple or compound.

A simple subject consists of one subject of thought, either unlimited, or modified as in the preceding exercises; as, Constant labour is the lot of man: To labour for subsistence is the lot of man; Labouring is my lot; That we must labour is evident.

A compound subject consists of two or more simple subjects, to which belongs but one predicate; as, You and I are friends. Time and tide wait for no man. Two and three are five.

EXERCISES.

In the following, point out the *subjects* and the *predicates*. State whether simple or compound-limited or unlimited. Distinguish the grammatical or logical.

Time and tide wait for no man. The rich and the poor meet together. Two and three are five. Wealth makes many friends. James and John are cousins. To be angry is to be mad. Obeying the will of God is the happiness of a christian. That we shall not agree is manifest.

Lesson 42.—Modifications of the Subject.

A grammatical subject, being a noun, may be modified, limited, or described in various ways; as,

- 1. By a noun in apposition; as, "Milton, the poet, was blind."
- 2. By a noun in the possessive case; as, "Aaron's rod budded."
- 3. By an adjunct; as, "The works of Nature are beautiful."
- 4. By an adjective word (i.e., an article, adjective, or participle); as, "A good name is better than riches."
- By a relative pronoun and its clause; as, "He who does no yood, does harm."
- 6. By an infinitive mood; as, "A desire to learn is praiseworthy."
- By a clause of a sentence; as, "The fact that he was a scholar was manifest."
- Each grammatical subject will, of course, have such modifications, and as many as the sense requires. These are the

various modifications common to nouns generally, whether standing in the position of the grammatical subject or not.

EXERCISES.

What modifications may the subject, when a noun, have? Give an example of each. Write four sentences giving the subject of each, as many of the same, and of different kinds of modifications as you can.

In the following sentences, point out the grammatical subject—the logical—and state how the grammatical subject is modified.

A wise man foreseeth evil. Wisdom's ways are pleasantness. Treasures of wiekedness profit nothing. He that walketh uprightly, walketh surely. Nature does nothing in vain. Socrates, the philosopher, died by poison. A desire to exect will stimulate to exertion. The report that the enemy was approaching soon spread. William, having conquered Harold, ascended the throne.

Lesson 43.—Modification of the Modifying Words.

Modifying or limiting words may themselves be modified.

- A noun modifying another, may itself be modified in all the ways in which a noun, being a grammatical subject, is modified.
- 2. An adjective qualifying a noun may itself be modified:-
 - 1. By an adjunct; as, "Blessed are the pure in heart."
 - 2. By an adverb; as, "A truly good man hates evil."
 - 3. By an infinitive; as, "Be swift to hear, slow to speak."
- 3. Again, an adverb may be modified:-
 - 1. By an adjunct; as, "Agreeably to Neture."
 - 2. By another adverb; as, "Yours very sincerely."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, by what words are the modifying nouns modified !—the adjectives !—the adverbs !

The rich man's wealth is his strong city. The very best remedy for certain evils is exercise. Truly great men are far above worldly pride. Your very kind letter has been received.

Lesson 44.—The Predicate.

I. The predicate, like the subject, is either grammatical or logical.

The Grammatical predicate consists of the attribute and copula, not modified by other words.

The attribute, which together with the copula, forms the predicate, may be expressed by a noun or pronoun, an adjective, a participle, a preposition with its case, an infinitive, a clause of a sentence, and sometimes by an adverb; as, James is a scholar. James is diligent. James is learned. James is in health. To obey is to enjoy. The order is that we must go. John is not so.

The attribute and copula are, however, more frequently expressed by one word; as, "The fire burns=is burning." "God rrigus." "Columbus discovered America."

The Logical predicate is the grammatical, together with all the words, phrases, &c., &c., that modify it; thus:

Nero was cruel to his subjects—Grammatical predicate, "was cruel"—Logical, "was cruel to his subjects."

When the grammatical predicate has no modifying term connected with it, the grammatical and the logical predicate are the same; as, "Life is short." "Time flies."

EXERCISES.

What different forms may the attribute take? Give examples of each.

In the following sentences, name the subject, the predicate, the copulative verbs, and the attributes. In each, tell what is the grammatical, and what is the logical predicate.

The wind blows. The fire burns. Man is mortal. Wisdom is the principal thing. He that tilleth his land shall be satisfied with bread. It appears so. He is of sound mind. The way of a fool is right in his own eyes. To be good is to be happy. The truth is, that nothing can be accomplished without labor. A soft answer turneth away wrath. You are he. Who are you? I am waiting. He was seen.

II. The predicate, like the subject, is either simple or compound.

A simple predicate ascribes to its subject but one attribute; as "Truth is great."

A compound predicate consists of two or more simple predicates, affirmed of one subject; as, "Truth is great and will prevail."

EXERCISES.

In each of the following sentences, name the subject and the predicate. State whether the predicate is simple or compound. Distinguish the grammatical and logical.

The fields are green. Casar came, saw, and conquered. John reads and writes well. The cities of the enemy were plundered and burned to the ground. The night was dark and rainy. A scorner seeketh wisdom and findeth it not. Charity suffereth long, and is kind.

Lesson 45.—Modifications of the Predicate.

A grammatical predicate may be modified or limited in various ways.

When the attribute in the grammatical predicate is a noun, it may have the usual modifications of a noun.

When the grammatical predicate is an attributive verb, it is modified—

- By a noun, pronoun, infinitive, or dependent clause, as the object of the verb, if transitive; as, "John reads Homer,"
 "We love him." "Boy's love to play." "Plate taught that the soul is immactal."
- 2. By an adverb; as, "John reads well,"
- 3. By an adjunct; as, "They live in London."

An infinitive or participle may be modified in all respects as the verb in the predicate,

A modifying clause, if a dependent proposition, may be modified in both its subject and predicate as other propositions.

All other modifying words may themselves be modified as similar words are when modifying the subject.

Each grammatical predicate will, of course, have such modifications and as many as the sense requires.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, name the subject and predicate—distinguish the grammatical and the logical predicate—show in what way the grammatical subject is modified in the logical.

His father and mother are dead: they died a year ago. Hannibal crossed the Alps. A truly diligent man will prosper. A person diligent in business will succeed. A desire to see the world is natural. Livy and Tacitus were Roman Historians. A person deserving respect will generally secure it. His intention was to destroy the fleet. Time flies rapidly. Sincerity and truth are the basis of every virtue. I wish that he would come soon. A person more truly desirous of accomplishing good does not live. The wish to rest the heart upon an object of love is universal. Virtue is truly immortal. To whom will you apply? James and Mary read their Bible.

Lesson 46.—Compound Sentences.

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences, or propositions, connected together; as,

"If time is money, wasting it must be prodigality."

Independent and Dependent Clauses.

The propositions which make up a compound sentence are called members or clauses. They are either independent, or dependent—sometimes called co-grainate and subordinate.

An independent clause is one that is not introduced to complete another clause, but makes complete sense by itself.

A dependent clause is one that is introduced to complete or modify something in the proposition with which it is connected, and therefore makes complete sense only in connection with the clause on which it depends; thus, "We left when the sun set." "We left," is an independent clause; "when the sun set," is a dependent one. The dependent clause often stands first.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, state which are simple, and which

are compound. In the compound, point out the members or clauses—state which are independent, and which dependent, and analyze them.

The carriage was brought to the door, and we set out on our journey. The sun had set before we got home. When we arrived, they greeted us with a cordial welcome. Though he slay me, I will trust in him. subjunctive mood is used when both doubt and futurity are implied. Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it. enemy hunger, feed him. Some lay down, Lid their eves, and wept. Peevisliness disgusts us, pains us, and mortifies us. Integrity and goodness belong to his character, and adorn it. Dilton and Cowper were distinguished poets, and good men. Love, faith, and patience prompt and sustain mighty efforts. The lightning flashed, and the thunder roared. Beauty soon fades, but virtue lives forever. Those who provide not for want, will find trouble. He returned immediately, although it was inconvenient. When no listener bends his ear, the dread Niagara roars.

Lesson 47.—Connection of Clauses.

Clauses of the same kind, whether independent or dependent, are connected by such conjunctions as and, or, nor, but, yet, &c.; as,

"The harvest is past, the summer is ended, and we are not saved."

In these the connective is sometimes omitted.

In compound sentences containing dependent clauses, the dependent clauses are usually connected with their principal clauses by relatives, conjunctions, or adverbs; thus,

Relative.—"That which can not be cured, must be endured."
Conjunction.—"The miser lives poor, THAT he may die rich."

Adverb .- "We will go WHEN the cars arrive."

See Analytical and Practical Grammar, 645, 646.

EXERCISES.

In the following compound sentences, state which contain only independent clauses; and which, dependent ones. Point out the dependent clauses, and also on what leading clauses they depend. Name the connecting words.

Fear God and keep his commandments. Hear instruction and be wise, and refuse it not. He that is surety for a stranger, shall smart for it. The wicked flee when no man pursueth. When I was a child, I spake as a child. Where thou goest, I will go. If thou be wise, thou shalt be wise for thyself.

The connecting word is sometimes omitted. In the following sentences, point out the dependent clause, and state what connective is omitted.

The injuries we do, and those we suffer, are seldom weighed in the same balance. See thou do it not. Your father thinks you ought to study more.

Lesson 48.—Abridged Propositions.

A compound sentence may sometimes be converted into a simple one, by abridging its dependent clause.

A dependent clause is frequently abridged by omitting the connecting word, and changing the verb of the predicate into a participle or infinitive: Thus—

"When the boys have finished their lessons, they will play;" abridged, "The boys, having finished their lessons, will play." "I know that he is faithful;" abridged, "I know him to be faithful."

EXERCISES.

1. Abridge the following compound sentences into simple ones: When our work is finished, we will play. When I had visited Europe, I returned to America. It is said, that "the love of money is the root of all evil;" daily observation shows that it is so.

2. Extend the following simple sentences into compound ones:

Connect the following sentences. Time past can never be recalled. The road leading to the eastle was blocked up. I know it to be genuine. You know him to be your friend. We hold these principles to be self-evident. His being successful is doubtful. The war being ended, trade revived.

Lesson 49.—Directions for Analysis.

State whether the sentence is simple, or compound.

If simple, name the logical subject, and the logical predicate.

Name the grammatical subject.

Show by what words or phrases, if any, it is modified in the logical. Show by what modifying words, if any, each modifying word is modified.

Name the grammatical predicate.

Show by what words or phrases, if any, it is modified in the logical. Show by what modifying words or phrases, if any, each modifying word is modified.

If the sentence is compound, mention the members, or clauses.

State whether they are independent, or dependent.

Show how the members are connected.

Analyze each member as a simple scatterer, by showing its subject, predicate, &c., as above.

Models of Analysis.

1. "God is good."

This is a simple sentence, because it contains a subject and a predicate.

tiod is the logical subject, because it is that of which the quality is affirmed.

Is good is the logical predicate, because it affirms a quality of its subject. Is is the verb or copula, and good is the attribute.

In this sentence, the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical, because they are not modified by other words.

Or, more briefly, thus :-

The logical subject is God.

The logical predicate is is good, in which is is the verb or copula, and good the attribute.

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

2. "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom."

This is a simple sentence.

The logical subject is The fear of the Lord.

The logical predicate is is the beginning of wisdom.

The grammatical subject is fear. It is modified by the adjunct of the Lord, and shown to be limited by the article the.

The grammatical predicate is is beginning, in which is is the verb or copula, and beginning the attribute. It is modified by the adjunct, of wisdom, and shown to be limited by the.

3. Two and two make four.

This is a simple sentence with a compound subject.

The logical subject is two and two, compound.

The logical predicate is make four.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is make; it is modified by its object four.

4. Truth is great and will prevail.

This is a simple sentence with a compound predicate.

The logical subject is truth.

The logical predicate is is great and will prevail, compound.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The first grammatical predicate is is great; the second is will prevail, they are connected by and.

5. Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth. This is a simple sentence imperative.

The logical subject is thou understood.

The logical predicate is Remember now thy Creater in the days of thy youth.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *Remember*. It is modified by now, an adverb of time, also by its object *Creator*, limited by the possessive thy. It is further modified by the adjunct in the days of thy youth. In the first of these adjuncts, the term days is limited by the second adjunct, and shown to be so by the definite article the.

6. Righteousness exalteth a nation; but sin is a reproach to any people.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two independent or co-ordinate clauses.

The first clause, "Righteousness exalteth a nation" is a simple independent sentence. Of this

The logical subject is Rightcousness.

The logical predicate is crafteth a nation.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *coalleth*. It is modified by its object nation, and this is shown to be used indefinitely by the article a prefixed.

The second clause, sin is a reproach to any people, is also a simple independent sentence, and connected with the preceding clause by the adversative conjunction but, expressing contrariety or opposition. Of this sentence

The logical subject is sin.

The logical predicate is is a reproach to any people.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is is reproach of which is is the copula, and reproach the attribute, shewn to be used indefinitely by the article a prefixed. It is modified by the adjunct to any people. In this adjunct, the word people is used in a general or unlimited sense as intimated by the indefinite adj. any prefixed.

7. Whose (= "he that" or "the man that") loveth instruction loveth knowledge.

This is a compound sentence, containing one independent, and one dependent clause.

The independent clause is He loreth knowledge. Of this the logical subject is He or the man, implied in the compound pronoun Whose.

The logical predicate is loveth knowledge.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is lovel's. It is modified by it object knowledge.

The dependent clause is that locath instruction. It is connected with the preceding clause by the relative that restrictive of he its antecedent.

The logical subject is the relative that.

The logical predicate is loveth instruction.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is burth. It is medified by its object instruction.

8. When all thy mercies, O my God! my rising soul surveys, Transported with the view, I'm lost in wonder, love, and praise.

This is a compound sentence consisting of one independent clause or sentence, and one dependent. It is inverted, the independent

clause being placed last. It may be resolved and arranged in

the natural order; thus,

O my soul! when my rising soul surveys all thy mercies, I, transported with the view, am lost in wonder, (in) love, and (in) praise. The independent clause arranged in natural order is, "I, transported with the view, am lost in wonder, (in) love, and (in) praise." In this simple sentence,

The logical subject is, \hat{I} , transported with the view.

The logical predicate is, am lost in wonder, love and praise.

The grammatical subject is *I*, denoting the speaker. It is described by the verbal adjective transported, and this again is modified by the adjunct by the view. In this adjunct, the term view is shown to be used definitely by the definite article the.

The grammatical predicate is, am lost. It is modified by the adjuncts in wonder, (in) love, and (in) praise; these three adjuncts are connected by the conjunctive and, understood after the first,

and expressed before the last.

The second clause is a dependent simple sentence, arranged thus in natural order: "When may rising soal surveys all thy mercies." It is connected with its principal by the conjunctive adverb WHEN, connects the two clauses, and modifies the verb of each.

The logical subject of this clause is, my rising soul.

The logical predicate is, surveys all thy mercies.

The grammatical subject is soul. It is described by the verbal adjective rising, and limited or qualified by the possessive my—my rising soul.

The grammatical predicate is surveys. It is modified by its object mercies: and this again is qualified by the indefinite adjective

all, and the possessive thy.

The sentence is introduced by the interjectional invocation, O my God! which has no grammatical connection with the sentence. See Lesson 71.

EXERCISES.

Thus analyse the following:-

Man is mortal. All men are mortal. The hand of the diligent maketh rich. Time is money. The love of money is the root of all evil. A friend in need, is a friend indeed. He that trusteth in his riches, shall fall. When pride cometh, then cometh shame. When the rain ceased, and the wind lulled, and the sea became calm, the ship raised her sails. He delayed his movements till the moment had passed. There is no such thing as witcheraft.

I took notice, in particular, of a very profligate fellow who, I did not doubt, came loaded with his crimes;

but, upon looking into his bundle, I found that, instead of throwing his guilt from him, he had only laid down his memory.

Note.—The selections in prose and poetry which have been appended to this edition, will furnish suitable matter for further exercises in Analysis, to any extent that may be thought necessary. These exercises in Analysis should now be carried on in connection with exercises on the rules of syntax.

Lesson 50.-II. Construction of Santances.

Words are arranged in sentences, according to certain rules, called the Rules of Syntax.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

- 1. In every sentence, there must be a redered its = $-5n\mathcal{H}(1)$ (or subject), expressed or understood.
- 2. Every adjective, or word used as an adjective, must have a substantive to which it belongs, expressed or uncoestical.
- Every subject nominative has income virb, expressed or understood.
- Every finite verb, (that is, every we have in the infinitive or participial mood) has its own nominative, expressed or understood.
- ${\bf 5}.$ Every possessive case is governed by a notin or substantive denoting the thing possessed.
- 6. Every objective case is governed either dire thy or indirectly by a transitive verb in the active voice, or by a preposition; or denotes circumstances of time, value, weight or measure.

The exceptions to these general principles will appear in the Rules of Syntax.

PARTS OF SYNTAX.

The rules of Syntax may all be referred to three heads; viz., Concord or agreement, Government, and Position.

Concord is the agreement one word has with another in gender, person, number, case, and form.

GOYERNMENT is the power which one word has in determining the mood, tense, or case

of another word. The word governed by another word is also called its regimen.

Position means the place which a word occupies in relation to other words in a sentence.

In the English language, which has but few inflections, the meaning of a sentence often depends much on the *position* of the words of which it consists.

Lesson 51.—Substantices in apposition.

Rule I.—A noun or pronoun used to identify or explain another noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case; as, Cicero the orator, Ottawa the Capital of Canada.

EXPLANATION.—A noun is placed in apposition after another noun, to express some attribute, description, or appellation, belonging to it. Both nouns must be in the same member of the sentence, that is, in the subject, or the predicate. This rule applies to all words used substantively, and it is only when the word in apposition is a pronoun, that there is any danger of error, because in pronouns only, the nominative and objective are different in form. The word in apposition is sometimes connected with the preceding, by the words as, being, and the like.

EXERCISES.*

1. In the following Exercise, point out the words in apposition. See if they are in the same case. If they are, the sentence is right; if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. In the following, some sentences are right, others wrong.

Your brother has returned, him who went abroad. I bought this paper from a bookseller, he who lives opposite; will you please to give it to that boy, he that stands by the door? Is your sister well, her that was

^{*}N.B.—Throughout the Exercises in Syntax—first, correct the errors; secondly, analyze orally the sentences corrected; thirdly, parse any word or words to which the rule refers.

lately sick? Hand that book to Johu, he who reads so well. The premium for the best writer is given to Thomas, he who took so much pains to excel. I refer to Newton the great philosopher of modern days; he who pierced Nature's recesses; he who forced from matter the law which governs it; he who bound Science with her own chain.

2. In this manner, write correct sentences containing nouns, or a noun and its pronoun, in apposition.

Lesson 52.-Adjective and Substantive.

- Rule II.—1. Adjectives and adjective words belong to the nouns which they qualify or define; as, "A good man;" "These books."
- 2. Adjectives denoting one belong to nouns in the singular—adjectives denoting more than one belong to nouns in the plural; as, "This man."—"These men."—"Six feet."
- Obs. 1. Adjectives denoting one, are this, that, one, each, every, either, neither; and the ordinal numerals, first, second, third, &c.
- Obs. 2. Adjectives denoting more than one, are these, those, many, several; and the cardinal numerals, two, three, four, &c.
- Property Obs. 3. Some adjectives implying number, can be joined with either singular or plural nouns, according to the sense; as, some, all, no, de.; thus, Some man—Some men.
- Obs. 4. Exception. When a noun following the numeral is used in an adjective sense (Lesson 10, Obs. 1) it has not the plural termination; thus, we say, A four *inch* plank; a three *foot* wall; a four *horse* team; a ten *acre* field, &c.
- Obs. 5. Adjectives should not be used as adverbs; thus, miserable poor, sings elegant—should be, miserably poor, sings elegantly (686).
- Obs. 6. When two or more objects are contrasted, this refers to the last mentioned, and that, to the first; as, "Virtue and vice are opposite qualities; that enneables the mind, this debases it."

Obs. 7. Comparison. When two objects are compared, the comparative degree is commonly used; when more than two, the superlative; as, "He is taller than his father." "John is the tallest amongst us."

Obs. 8. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper, thus, "James is more taller than John,"—omit more. "He is the most wisest of the three,"—omit most. For varieties and exceptions, see An & Pr. Gr.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise, point out the adjectives, and the substantives which they qualify. Tell which denotes one, and which more than one, and make the substantives singular or plural as the adjectives require.

A well six fathom deep. A pole ten foot long. A field twenty rod wide. I have not seen him this ten days. These sort of people are common. These kind of things are useless. You will find the remark in the second or third pages. Each have their own place, and they know it. The second and third page were torn.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain an adjective of number, (see Obs. 1, 2, 3,) and a substantive in the number required by the adjective. Thus, Every men had a pole six feet long.

Lesson 53.—The Article.

Rule III.—1. The article A or AN belongs to nouns of the singular number only, or to nouns denoting plurality of objects in one aggregate; as, "A man,"—" An apple,"—" "A million."

2. The article the belongs to nouns either in the singular or plural number; as "The sun rises,"—"The citizens are enterprising."

EXPLANATION.—It is impossible to give a precise Rule for the use of the article in every case. The best general rule is, to observe what the sense requires. The following usages may be noticed. (For others, see An. & Pr. Gr.)

Obs. 1. The article is omitted before a noun that is unlimited, or that stands for a whole species; as, Man is mortal; and before the names of minerals, metals, arts, &c. Some nouns denoting the species, have the articles always prefixed; as, The dog is a more grateful animal than the cat. The lion is a noble animal. Others never have it; thus, Lead is softer than iron. Wood is lighter than stone.

Obs. 2. The last of two nouns after a comparative, should have no article when they both refer to one person or thing; as, He is

a better reader than writer.

Obs. 3. When two or more adjectives, or epithets, belong to the same subject, the article should be placed before the first, and omitted before the rest; but when they belong to different subjects, the article is prefixed to each; thus, "A red and white rose," indicates one rose, partly red and partly white. "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer," denotes one person. "Johnson, the bookseller, and the stationer," denotes two.

EXERCISES.

1. The following sentences are wrong only in use of the article, show why they are wrong and correct them.

A great talents without a virtue are dangerous. A man is mortal. A time flies. The money is scarce. John is a better farmer than a scholar. The black and the white spaniel runs fastest. The black and white spaniel run together. The time and the tide wait for no man. A red and a white rose grows on this bush. The black and white man came together. Smith, the tanner and currier, entered into partnership. Smith, the tanner and the currier, is a man of a great industry.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain the article c, or an, or, the ;—others, which shall contain nouns without an article.

Lesson 54.—Personal Properties.

Rule IV.— Pronouns must agree with their antecedents, in gender, number, and person; as, All that a man hath, will he

give for his life,—The book which was lost is found.

PERSONAL PRONOUN—SPECIAL RULES.

Rule 1.—When a pronoun refers to two or more words taken together, it becomes plural, and if the words are of different persons, it prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, "He and she did their duty." "John and you and I will do our duty."

RULE 2.—When a pronoun refers to two or more words in the singular, taken separately; or to one of them exclusively, it must be singular; as, "A clock or a watch moves merely as it is moved."

RULE 3.—But if either of the words referred to is plural, the pronoun must be plural also; as, "Neither he nor they trouble themselves."

- Obs. 1. A pronoun referring to a collective noun in the singular, expressing many as one whole, should be in the neuter singular; but when the pronoun expresses many as individuals, the pronoun should be plural; as, "The army proceeded on its march."—"The court were divided in their opinions."
- Ons. 2.. The word containing the answer to a question, must be in the same case as the word that asks it; as, "Who said that?" Ans. "I (said it)." "Whose books are these?" Ans. "John's." For other Notes and Observations, see An. & Pr. Gr.

EXERCISES

1. In the following Exercise, point out the personal pronouns and the nouns for which they stand. Change the pronoun if necessary, for one of the same gender, number, and person, with its noun.

Give to every man their due. Answer not a fool according to her folly. Take handfuls of ashes and sprinkle it toward heaven. Rebecca took raiment and put them upon Jacob. Thou and he shared it between them. Who is there? Me. Who did that? Him. Whom did you meet? He. Whose pen is that? Her or mine's. Virtue forces her way through obscurity, and sooner or later it is sure to be rewarded.

Lesson 55.

RELATIVE PRONOUN—SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—Who is applied to persons, or things personified; as, "The man who"—"The for who had never seen a lion."

RULE 2.—Which is applied to things, and inferior onimals; as, "The house which;" "The dog which." See Lesson 13, 4.

Rela. 3.—That, as a relative, is used instead of who or which.

- After a superlative degree, the words, same, all, and sometimes no, some, and any; and generally in restrictive clauses; as, "It is the best that can be got."
- When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, "The man and the horse that we saw yesterday."
- After the interregative who, and sometimes after the personal pronouns; as, "Who that knows him will believe it," "I that speak in rightconsness."
- Generally, when the propriety of who or which is doubtful, as, "The child that was placed in the midst."

For other remarks, see An. & Pr. Gr.

EXPLANATION.—The relative stands instead of the noun or pronoun called its antecedent, and also connects the idea expressed in its clause with the antecedent, either for the purpose of further describing it, or of limiting and restricting it. [See Lesson 13, Obs. 1]. Consequently, the relative is always regarded as of the same gender, person and number as its antecedent; and if the nominative to a verb, the verb will be of the same number and person also. For remarks respecting the antecedent, and the use of who and which, see Lesson 13.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the relative, and the noun or pronoun to which it refers. Tell the use of the relative and its clause in each sentence. After the relative, if necessary, as required by its antecedent, according to SUB-RULE 1. If the relative is in the nominative, put its verb in the same number and person as the relative or the antecedent. Give a reason for each change.

The friend which I love. The vice whom I hate. There is the dog who followed us. They which seek wisdom, find it. All which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave. "I who speak unto you, am he." It is the best situation which can be got. The man and the horse whom we saw.

2. Write a few short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following nouns or pronouns limited by a relative and its clause; viz. Man, house, doy, tree, field, had, boot, chair; I. thou, he, we, you, they; thus, "There is the man who makes baskets." Parse the sentences, and tell the number and person of the relative, and why.

Lesson 56.—Subject Nominaties.

Rule VI.—The subject of a finite verb must be in the nominative; as, "I am."—
"Thou art."—"He is."—"They are."—
"Time flies."

The subject of a finite verb may be a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive, a participle, or a clause of a sentence.

EXERCISES.

In each sentence, point out the vero and its subject. If the sub-

ject is not in the right case, change it.

Him and me are of the same age. Suppose you and me go. Them are excellent. It is probable that her and me will return. Robert is taller than me, but I am as strong as him. I am older than him; but he is taller than me.

Lesson 57.—Nondivitie Absolute.

Rule VII.—A substantive whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative, independent or absolute.

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE I.—A substantive with a participle, where the depends on no other word, is put in the nonivative absolute to express a case, reason or attendant circumstance; as, "He being gone, only two remains. The day being stormy, we remained at home. The subhaving risen, we departed on our journey."

Rule 2.—When a direct address is made and the noun or pronoun has no dependence on the rest of the sentence, it is in the nominative, absolute by address; as, "I remain, dear sir, yours truly."

" Plato, theu reasonest well."

Rule. 3—When a noun or pronoun is used merely to express an exclamation, it is put in the nominative, absolute by exclamation; as, "Oh the times!—Oh the manners!"

Rule 4.—When the subject of remark is introduced and left independent of the sentence it is in the nominative, absolute by pleonasm; as, "Your fathers, where are they?" "The prophets, do they live forever."

Under these rules, a mistake can be made only in the case of pronouns.

EXERCISES.

Point out the word in the case absolute or independent; if wrong, put it in the right case, and state why it should be in the nominative.

Me being absent, the business was neglected. Thee being present, he would not tell me what he knew. Oh! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings. Thee too! Brutus, my son! cried Cæsar, overcome. Religion, what treasures untold reside in that heavenly word! He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.

Lesson 58.—Verb and its Nominative.

Rule VIII.—A verb agrees with its subject nominative in number and person; as, "I read," "Thou readest," "He reads," &c.

EXPLANATION..—This Rule means, that a verb must always be in the same number and person with its subject or nominative. This Rule and the Special Rules under it apply, also, when the subject is an infinitive mood, or clause of a sentence, &c. See under Rule VI.

EXERCISES.

- 1. In the following Exercises, tell which words are verbs—which the nominatives—whether the verb and its nominative agree—and if not, make them agree by putting the verb in the person and number of its nominative.
- You was there. They was absent. Your brothers has been abroad. Has your sisters come home? Was you present? The letters has come. Fair words costs nothing. There is no roses without thorns.
- Take the verb to write, and make it agree with I—with thou—with they—in all the tenses of the indicative mood. Take any other verb, and do the same.

Lesson 59.—Verb and its Subject.

SPECIAL RULES UNDER RULE VIII.

Rule 1.-A singular noun used in a plural sense, has a verb in the plural; as, "Ten sail are in sight."

Rule 2.—Two or more substantives singular, taken together, have a verb in the plural; as, "James and John are here."

Exc.—But when substantives connected by and denote one person or thing, the verb is singular; as, "Why is dust and ashes proud?"

Rule 3.—Two or more substantives singular, taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest, have a verb in the singular; as, "James or John attends."

Rule 4.—When substantives, taken together, are of different persons, the verb agrees with the one next to it; "James or I am in the wrong?" Better, "James is in the wrong, or I am."

OBS.—So also when the substantives are of different numbers, in which case the plural number is usually placed last.

Rule 5.—1. A collective noun expressing many, considered as one whole, has a verb in the singular; as, "The company was large."

2. But when a collective noun expresses many, considered as INDIVIDUALS, the verb must be plural; as, "My people do not consider."

EXERCISES.

In the following Exercises, put the verb in the number required by the Rule, and give the Rule for the correction.

(1) Forty head of cattle was grazing in the meadow Twelve brace of pigeons was sold for one dollar. (2) Life and death is in the power of the tongue. Out of the same mouth proceedeth blessing and cursing. (3) Either the boy or the girl were present. (4) I or thou am to blame. (5) The people was very numerous.

Lesson 60.—The predicate Substantive.

Rule IX.—Intransitive verbs, and verbs in the passive voice, take the same case after them as before them, when both words refer to the same person or thing; as, "It is I."

—"He shall be called John."—"I took it to be him."—"Homer has been styled the prince of poets."

EXPLANATION.—Verbs having the same case after as before them, are chiefly those which signify to be, or to become; passive verbs of naming, making, choosing, and the like; as, "John became a scholar." "David was made king." The nominative before the finite verb is the subject, the one after it is the predicate, and the verb is the copula. Hence they all form a simple sentence; and though the nouns denote the same person or thing, and are in the same case, they are not in apposition as in RPLE1; but the noun after a verb is predicated of the substantive before it, or which is its subject.

EXERCISES.

In the following Exercises, in each sentence, point out the verb to which the Rule applies, and the noun or pronoun before and after it. Tell the case of the one before, and why. Put the one after the verb in the same case as the one before it, give the Rule for the change, and show how it applies. Tell the subject and predicate in each sentence.

It is me. It could not have been them. I am certain it was not me. That is the man who I thought it to be. Is that thee? Whom did they say it was? I understood it to have been he. Was it me that said so? It could not have been me; but it might have been him, or her, or both. Who do you think him to be? It may have been them, but it was not me.

2. Write similar correct sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, with the same case after it as before it, viz., is, are, became, was made, shall be chosen, to be, to be called, to be appointed. Apply the Rule as above.

Lesson 61.—Objective after a Transitive Verb.

Rule X.—A transitive verb in the active voice governs the objective case; as, "We love him."—"Whom did they send?"

EXPLANATION.—The transitive verb in the active voice, always affirms what its subject or nominative does to some other person or thing, called its *object*. The rule means, that this *object* must always be put in the *objective case*. This rule is liable to be vio-

lated only when the object is a pronoun, because in all other words the nominative and the objective cases are alike.

*Nouns and personal pronouns in the objective case are usually placed after the verb—relative and interrogative pronouns, usually before it.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercises, point out the transitive verb—its snbject—its object—put that object in the proper case—tell what that case is, and why.

He loves her and I. Did they hurt ye? We know her and they. He and they we know. The friend who I love. Take care who you admit. I will not give ye up. He who you ignorantly worship, declare I unto you.

2. Write a number of sentences, each of which shall contain an active transitive verb: such as, do, have, touch, heet, love, &c., followed by a personal pronoun in the proper case. Parse them, and give the Rule.

SPECIAL RULES.

- Rule 1.—An intransitive verb does not govern an objective case; as, "Repenting him of his design,"—omit him.
- ' Rule 2.—Intransitive verbs in a transitive sense (Lesson 16, Obs. 3), govern the objective case: as, "He runs a race."
- I RULE 3.—Intransitive verbs do not admit a passive voice, except when used transitively (Lesson 18, 5); as, "My race is run."
- / RULE 4.—A transitive verb does not admit a preposition after it; as, "I will not allow of it"—omit of.
- RULE 5.—Verbs signifying to NAME, APPOINT, CONSTITUTE, and the like, generally govern two objectives, viz.: the direct, denoting the person or thing acted upon: and the indirect, denoting the result of the act expressed: as, "They named him John."

EXERCISES UNDER THE SPECIAL RULES.

Show how the rule is violated in each of the following sentences, and correct the error.

(1) Robert plays himself with his lessons. He lies him down on the grass. (2) They expatiated themselves largely. Planters grow cotton. Sit thee down. (3) I am resolved to go. Is your father returned? He is almost perished with cold. (4) They do not want for anything. His servants ye are, to whom ye obey. False accusation cannot diminish from his real merit. (5) He was chosen for a Senator.

Lesson 62.—Objective after a Preposition.

Rule XI.—A Preposition governs the objective case; as, "To whom much is given, of him much shall be required."

EXPLANATION.—This Rule means, that the noun or pronoun after a preposition must be put in the objective case. This Rule can be violated only in the use of pronouns.

Obs. 1. Whom and which are sometimes governed by a preposition at some distance after them. But this should generally be avoided; thus, "This is he whom I gave it to,"—better—"to whom I gave it."

Obs. 2. The preposition is sometimes omitted. It is then said to be understood; thus, "Give (to) me that book." Here, "me" is governed by "to," understood.

SPECIAL RULE.

RULE.—Nouns devoling TIME, VALUE, WEIGHT, MEASURE, DISTANCE, or direction, are commonly put in the objective case without a governing word; as, "He was absent six mouths last year."—"It cost a shilling."—"It is not worth a cent."—"It weighs a pound."—"They had gone three miles."—"He went South."—"The wall is six feet high, and two feet thick."

This may be called the objective of time, ruler, &c.

EXERCISES.

Point out the prepositions and the word governed by each.
 Put that word in the proper case, if notinit already. Give the Rule.

This belongs to my father and I. Who did you get it from? Who shall we send it to? Divide it between ye, or give it to him and I. This is a small matter between you and I. Who did you give it to? Who did you work for?

2. In this way write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain a preposition (see the list), followed by a personal or relative pronoun in the proper case. Parse the sentences, and give the Rule for the case after the preposition.

Obs. 3. When the prepositions to, at, in, stand before names of places, the following usage should be carefully observed.

To—is used after words denoting motion toward: as, "He went to Spain;" but in this case it is emitted before home, as, "He went home,"

- 2. At-is used before names of houses, villages, towns, and forcian cities; as, "He resides at the Mansion house-at Geneva—at Lisbon."
- 3. In-is used before the names of countries and large cities; as, "He lives in England-in London." But before these, at is used after the verbs touch, arrive, land, and sometimes after the verb to be.
- 4. In speaking of one's residence in a city, at is used before the No. and in (generally understood), before the street.

This Observation contains four special rules, numbered as above.

EXERCISES.

Obs. 3.—In the following sentences, change the preposition used, or that which usage requires, and give the special Rule.

I have been to home all day. Have you been to Montreal? They live in Union Village; formerly they lived at New York. He has been at England, and has just returned to home. We touched in France on our way to home. He lives to Brantford, at B. Street, but resided formerly in No. 206, Richmond Street, Toronto.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain the name of some city, village, county or state, preceded by a verb or word denoting motion toward, or by the verb be, live, dwell, &c., and the appropriate preposition.

Lesson 63.—Prepositions after certain Words.

Rule XII.—Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions: Thus--

Accuse of. Acquit of. Adapted to.

Ask or enquire of a person for

what we wish to see,—after Confide in. what we wish to hear of.

Believe in, sometimes on. Betray to a person,—into a thing. Call on a person,—at a place.

Change for,—to,—into. Compare with, in respect of quality,-to for the sake of illustra-

tion.

Conformable, consonant to, with, Conversant with men, in things. Copy from life, nature, -after o

parent.

Dependent apon. Die of disease, -by an instrument Marry to. or violence,-for another. Differ from. Difficulty in. Diminish from,—diminution of. Disappointed in what we have, of what we expect. Discourage from.

Discouragement to. Engaged in a work,—for a time.

Equal to, with. Exception from,—sometimes to. Expert at (before a noun),—in (before an active participle).

Familiar to, with. A thing is Sick of. familiar to us; we are familiar Swerve from. with it.

Free from.

Glad of something gained by our-

falls another. Independent of.

Indulge with what is not habitual, Worthy of, -sometimes the of —in what is habitual.

Insist upon.

EXPLANATION.—As words connected by prepositions are differently related, care must be taken to employ the prepositions which best express the relation intended. The sense, and the practice of correct writers, will here be our best guide. The above are only a few examples out of many.

Obs.—The same preposition that follows the verb or adjective usually follows the noun derived from it, and vice versa; as, Confide in,—confidence in,—confident in.

EXERCISES.

1. Change the preposition where necessary in each of the following sentences, for that required by the rule.

He was accused with robbery, and acquitted from the charge. I have been calling upon an old friend. Call in the post office. I differ with you in that matter. John died by consumption, Henry died of the sword, and Robert is sick with the jaundice. Try to profit from experience. You have a taste of poetry. Conversant in

Made of. Need of.

Observation of. Prejudice against.

Prevail (to persuade) with, on, upon,-(to overcome) over, against.

Profit by.

Protect (others) from,-(our selves) ugains!.

Provide with or for.

Reduce (to subduc) under,—in other cases, to; as, to powder.

Regard for,—in regard to.

Taste (meaning capacity or inclination) for,—(meaning actual enjoyment) o/.

selves,—at something that be- Tax with (e.g., a crime)—for

the state. Value apon, or on.

is understood

men and things. Compare this piece to that, and see which is the best. I could never bear the taste for tobacco. This is an exception against the general rule.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the words in the preceding table, followed by the appropriate preposition.

Lesson 64.—The Possessive Case.

Rule XIII.—The Possessive Case is governed by the Noun, which denotes the thing possessed; as, "Virtue's reward."—"John's books."—"The sun's rays."

EXPLANATION.—The noun or pronoun in the possessive always limits the noun that governs it. Thus, "Virtue's reward;" the latter word does not mean reward in general, or any indefinite reward, but a particular reward, viz., Virtue's. This Rule applies to the relative pronoun, and to the possessive case of the personal pronoun, when the noun denoting the thing possessed is understood; as, "That book is mine."

- OBS. 1.—When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive ('s) is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, "Jane and Lucy's books," i.e., books the common property of Jane and Lucy. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, "Jane's and Lucy's books," i.e., books, some of which are Jane's and others, Lucy's.
- Obs. 2.—When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as "Julius Cæsar's Commentaries,"—"The bishop of London's Charge."
- OBS. 3.—The noun limited by the possessive is frequently understood; as, "He stays at his father's" (house).
- Obs. 4.—The preposition of, with the objective, is frequently equivalent to the possessive, but not always. In the use of it, both harshness and ambiguity should be avoided.

| Çॐ For several of the minutise belonging to this Rule, see An. & Pr. Gr.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Ex reises, point out the noun or pronoun which limits, and the noun whose signification is limited by it; and if understood, supply it. Put the limiting word in the possessive case. When several words coming together should be in the possessive, or when the mane is complet, add the sign of the possessive ('s) to the proper term.

The boys book. The girls bonnet. The Ladys book, a birds nest, a bear skin. A mothers tenderness, and a fathers eare, are natures gifts for mans advantage. A horse tooth. James and Thomas feet are cold. Williams and Marys reign. Sheldon & Company's bookstore is in New York. James loss is Thomas gain. The Farmers Guide. The Scholars Companion. The Court's session is put off. The meeting's president was appointed.

Write short sentences, each of which shall contain a noun or pronoun denoting the possessor of secrething. But the word denoting the possessor in the proper case.

Lesson 65-- Subjunctive Mond.

- Rule XIV.—1. The elliptical or subjunctive form is used in dependent clauses, connected by if, when both contingency or doubt, and futurity are expressed; as, "If he continue to study, he will improve."
 - 2. The indirative form is used in dependent clauses, connected by if, when contingency or doubt only, and not futurity, is implied; as, "If he has money, he keeps it." "If he is come, let me know."

EXPLANATION.—Doubt and futurity are both implied when the auxiliary shall or should, referring to future time, can be inserted before the verb without changing the meaning; thus, "Though he fall," and "Though he should fall," mean the same thing. It is only in the present tense and third person singular that there is danger of error under this Rule, except in the verb to be.

REMARK.—Many of the best writers, and some distinguished grammarians, often use the subjunctive present, when mere doubt or contingency is expressed, and not futurity. A contrary practice of using the indicative where both doubt and futurity are implied, now begins to prevail; thus, "If he continues to study, he will improve." But the weight of good authority still is evidently in favor of the preceding Rules. A general adherence to them would have this advantage, that the mood used would be a certain guide to the sense intended.

SUB-RULE.—Lest and that, americal to a command, require the subjunctive mood; as, "Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty." "Take heed that thou speak not to Jacob, either good or bad."

Obs.—The subjunctive mood, in the past tense, expresses a supposition with respect to something present, but implies a denial of the thing supposed; as, "If I wave a nightingale, I would sing;" implying, "I am not."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, state whether the verb following "if" or "though" should be in the subjunctive or indicative mood, and why; and make the necessary correction.

If there be a rule it should be observed. Though he be rich, he is not happy. If the mail arrives to-morrow, we shall have letters. If he studies diligently when he goes to school, he will improve. If he is discreet when he goes abroad, he will gain friends. If he have money, he must have earned it.

Lesson 66 -Infinitive Mood.

Rule XV.—The infinitive mood is a verbal noun; and when not the subject of a verb, or governed, as any other noun, by a verb, noun, or preposition, is governed by the sign "to."

As, To speak in that manner is wrong—"to speak" subject of the verb is. I desire to learn—"to learn,"—the verb objective to "desire." I have a desire "to learn"—to learn,—in apposition with the noun "desire." I am in haste to depart—"to depart" governed by the preposition for, understood, or without supplying anything governed by the sign "to." I am ready to begin the work—"to begin" governed by for, understood, or by the sign "to." He is about to return—"to return," governed by the preposition "about." He lived so as [he would live] to refute scandal—"to refute" governed by "for" or by the sign "to." He sims higher than to reign [is high]—"to reign," nominative to is. He commanded the men to march—"to march," object of commanded. You are to blame—"to blame," predicate, nominative after the copula, "are." The use of the infinitive is fully illustrated in these examples.

EXPLANATION.—The infinitive mood, in relation to the word that governs it, that is, the word on which it depends, has always the construction of a noun, as is shown in the above examples; but it is a verbal noun. Like the participle, it lacks the essential characteristic of the verb, that is, it is never used as the verb to make en assertion, and hence has no agreement in person and number with any word as its nominative. With this important exception, it possesses every attribute, and takes every modification of the verb. It is true, it expresses action, therefore there must be an actor; but observe, the word which represents the actor has its own construction independent of any connection with the infinitive, and the further relation of such word as the doer of the act expressed by the infinitive, is super-added and incidental. Take, for example, the sentence,—"I am ready to begin the work immediately," "I" is the doer of the act, expressed by the infinitive "to begin," but "I" has its construction independent of this, as nominative to the verb "am." "To begin," in its verbal character, like any other transitive verb, has, as a matter of course, its objective, "work;" and also, in its verbal character, is modified by the adverb "immediately." Again: "He commanded the mich to lead their horses up the hill." "To lead" is the object of "commanded;" "men" is the doer of the act, expressed by the infinitive "to lead," but "men" has its construction independent of this as the direct objective of "commanded;" "horses" is objective of "to lead;" "up the hill" is an adjunct, modifying "to lead."

SPECIAL RULES.

Rule. I.—When the infinitive is governed by the verbs nid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, or let, in the active voice, and by let in the passive, the sign "to" is omitted before it; as, "I saw him do it;" not "to do it." Bid him go.—Hear me speak.

RULS 2.—The infinitive is sometimes used absolutely: as, "To proceed with my story."

EXERCISES.

1. In the following exercises point out the construction of the infinitives. Insert or omit the sign "to," and give a reason for inserting or omitting it. Give the construction of all the words that depend on or modify the infinitives.

Strive learn. Cease do evil. Learn do well. He needs not to write. He showed an eagerness to learn. I would make you to take care. He dares not to do a wicked action; nor will he dare do it. It is lawful for us to give tribute. I heard him to say so. To make believe. He was heard say so. Let James to do this. Bid him to speak to me. He knows not how to learn. Did you see him to do that? No, but I heard him to do it. Did you hear the bell to ring? He stood up for to read. Make him to go. To confess the truth. He was made go. An object so high as to be inaccessible. I read to learn. Whom do you suppose him to be?

2. Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one verb in the infinitive mood, as the subject of another verb—as the object—to express the end or design—with to properly omitted—with a subject of its own in the objective case—in apposition with a noun in the predicate nominative, &c.

Lesson 67.—Construction of Participles.

Rule XVI.—The participle, when not joined with the verb "have," or "to be," and taken as a verb, has always the construction of a verbal noun or verbal adjective; as, He loving his work performed it. Esteeming themselves wise, they became fools. After defeating his army, he took possession of the King. Writing letters is my occupation in the morning.

In the first two of the above examples the participles are verbal

adjectives. In the other two they are verbal nouns.

It will be seen by these examples that while the verb formally asserts or declares the fact the participle assumes it. We are thus, with the greatest advantage, enabled to condense what we have to say by abridging the dependent clauses. The explanatory remarks on the infinitive in the preceding lesson apply equally to the participles.

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—When a noun or pronoun in the possessive case is governed by a participial noun expressing the thing possessed, the noun or pronoun must have its possessive form: as, "Much depends on the pupil's composing frequently."

Rule 2.—When the present printiple is d as a nona, has an Article or Adjective before it, the proposition of follows: as, "By the observing of these rules."—"A complete forsaking of the truth."

EXPLANATION.—When used in this way, the participle is regarded as a noun simply, and has not the government or modifications of the verb.

Obs. 2.—The sense will often be the same, if both the article and the preposition be omitted; but the one should not be omitted without the omission of the other; thus, "By observing these rules." In some cases, however, these two modes express very different ideas, and therefore attention to the sense is necessary, as directed in the following rule.

Rule 3.—When the verbal near expresses something of which the noun following denotes the DOLE, it should have the article and the preposition; as, "It was told in the hearing of the witness."—But when it expresses something of which the noun following does not denote the doer, but the ODJECT, both should be omitted, as, "The court spent much time in hearing the witness."

Obs. 3.—Of can never be used after the verbal noun when a preposition follows it; thus, "By attending to these rules," can not be changed into, "By the attending of to these rules."

Ruth: 4.—The past participle, and not the past tense, should be used after the auxiliaries nave and we; as, "I have written" (not norote)—"The letter is written" (not wrote).

REM.—So also, the past participle should not be used for the past tense; as, "He ran;" not "He run," "1 saw;" not "I seen."

EXPLANATION.—This rule can be violated only when the past tense and past participle differ in spelling.

Obs. 4.—The participle in *inj* is sometimes used in a passive sense after the verb to be, to express the continued suffering of an action; as, "The house is building;" not is being built.

EXERCISES.

In the following exercise, point out the construction of the participles. Give the construction of all words that depend on or modify the participles. Correct all errors, and give the Rules.

My brother being sick, is the cause of his absence. A man making a fortune, depends partly on him pursuing a proper course. John attempting too much, was the cause of his failure. Hers going away was not observed. Learning of anything well, requires application. The doing our duty is commendable. By reading of good books the mind is improved. Of the making many books there is no end. By exercising of our faculties they are improved. The giving to every man his own is a sacred duty. At hearing the ear, they shall obey. Because of provoking his sons and daughters, the Lord abhorred them. The greatest pain is felt in the cutting of the skin. He should have wrote. Have you spoke to the master? I am almost froze. She has just began to read. James has broke his arm. You should have drove more slowly. He has drank too much, and should be took home. He might have rode if he had chose. I seen him an hour ago. I done what you told me. James run a mile in ten minutes and had not began to be tired. The school begun yesterday. He ought to have went, or at least to have wrote. That is wrong, vou had not ought to do it.

- 3. Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, in the present-perfect or past-perfect indicative active, viz., begin, run, writ, free: cut, dreak. Parse the sentences, and apply the Rule.
- 4. Write short sentences, with the following verbs in the passive voice; viz., write, begin, sleake, sink, speak, give. Parse them, and apply the Rule.

Lesson 68.—The Order of Time.

Rule XVII.—In the use of verbs, and words that in point of time relate to each other, the order of time must be observed; as, "I have known him these many years."

EXPLANATION.—This Rule is general, and here also the sense is the best guide. The following principles may be noticed in this place:

- 1. That which is always true, is expressed in the present tense.
- 2. That which is past, but viewed as continued in the present, is expressed in the present-perfect tense.
- 3. Verbs having the auxiliaries shall, will, may, can, can be associated in a sentence with other verbs in the present only; those with might, could, would, should, with verbs in the past.
- 4. The present infinitive expresses what is contemporary with, or subsequent to, the time of the governing verb; the perfect infinitive expresses what is antecedent to that time.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, point out the verb which is wrong in respect of tense. Put in the proper tense, and tell why it is changed.

It was said that fever always produced thirst; that heat always expanded metals; and that truth was immutable. He is now absent a week. I have been abroad last year. If he would lend me that book, I will be obliged to him. He can do it if he would. I intended to have written; but I still hoped he would have come. Rome is said to be built seven hundred years before the Christian era. Nero is said to persecute the Christians. He has been gone long before I knew it.

2. Write short sentences, and express, in each, something which you hoped, feared, desired, intended, to do yesterday, before yesterday;—which you hope, fear, &c., to do to-day, to morrow. Also what some one did yesterday,—before yesterday,—always does,—does now,—has just now done,—will do to-morrow,—before to-morrow night.

Lesson 69.—Construction of Aderrbs.

Rule XVIII.—Adverbs modify verbs, and other adverbs; as "John speaks distinctly; he is remarkably diligent, and reads rery correctly."

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—Adverbs should not be used as adjectives, nor adjectives as adverbs; as, "The preceding (not the above) extract."

Rule 2.—Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, and should not be used unless affirmation is intended; as, "I can not drink any (not no) more;" or, "I can drink no more."

RULE 3.—Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb, where there are no amedianies, and after the first auxiliary in the auxiliary forms: i.s. "He is very attentive, behaves well, and is much esterme!."

EXPLANATION.—This is to be considered only as a general rule, to which there are many exceptions. Indeed no rule for the position of the adverb can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. The best direction for the use of this rule, is to place the adverb where the sense requires, having due regard to the harmony of the sentence. This rule applies to adjuncts, or adverbial phrases as well as to adverbs.

- Obs. 1.—Where should not be used for in which, except when the reference is to place; as, "The situation in which (not where) I left him;" because "situation" does not here refer to place.
- Obs. 2.—So, is often used elliptically for an adjective, a noun, or a whole sentence; as, "They are rich; we are not so." "He is a good scholar, and I told you so."
- Obs. 3.—Only, solely, chirfly, merely, too, also, and perhaps a few others, are sometimes joined to substantives; as, "Not only the men, but the women also were present."
- Obs. 4.—A negative is often made by the syllables dis, in, in, un, &c., prefixed to a word. When this is the case, another negative is sometimes used, to express a diminished kind of affirmation; as, "He was not unkind." The negative terms are such as no, not, neither, nor, never, &c.

For a fuller account of the construction and use of adverbs, see An. & Pr. Gr.

EXERCISES.

Adverbs being undeclinable, mistakes are liable to be made chiefly in their position; or in using as adverbs, words that are not so; or in using adverbs where other words are required. Correct the errors in the following sentences, as the Rules require:—

(Rule 1.)—I. Point out the modifying words in the following sentences. If not adverbs, make them so, and give the Rule.

Come quick. James does that very good. That was done excellent. Time moves rapid. Apparent slow people accomplish much if sufficient steady. You can read excellent well. It is real cold.

 In the following point out the adverb improperly used. Show why it is so; change it for the proper term, and give the Rule.

Thine often infirmities. Come the soonest day possible. The soonest time will be late enough. The then ministry opposed the measure. The condition where I found him was truly bad. He was here last year, since when I have not seen him.

3. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain an adverb (see Lesson 31), modifying a verb or adjective, and see that it is placed as directed in Rule 3d and Explanation.

(Rule 2).—1. Point out the two negatives in the following sentences. Show why they are wrong; correct them, and give the Rule.

I can not eat no more. He is not able to walk no further. We can not do that in no way. He will never be no taller. Never do nothing of the kind. Time and tide will not wait for no man. No man never did that. You must not drink no more.

2. Make short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following words: worthy, just, discreet, kind, obliging, agreeable, happy, jirm, &c. Then prefix to these words the appropriate negative prefix mentioned above. Then insert a negative word in each sentence, and mark the difference of meaning with each change; thus, "He is a worthy man," "He is an unworthy man," "He is not an unworthy man."

(Rule 3).—1. In the following sentences, place the adverb as the Rule directs, provided the sense will thereby be clearly expressed.

A man industrious eminently. He is agreeable always. He sweetly sings, charmingly converses, and prudently conducts himself on all occasions. He unaffectedly spoke. He manfully has contended for the prize, and certainly will obtain it. Time will wait never. He could have not done it. He will be always trusty. That disaster might have easily been prevented. That piece was executed beautifully.

2. The following sentences have the adverb placed according to the Rule, but the sense and harmony of the sentence evidently re-

quire it to be in a different position.

Men contend frequently for trifles. I only saw three persons. Of the books I sent him, he only read one. James can very well read. You should slowly write. He might plainly have told him. He not only saw her pleased, but greatly pleased.

3. Write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more adverbs correctly placed. [See List, Lesson 31].

4. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following adverbs, viz., only, merely, solely, chiefly, first, at least, and tell the word which they modify. Place the adverbs in as many different positions, in each sentence, as you can, so as to make sense, and mark the change of meaning.

Lesson 70.—Conjunctions.

Rule XIX.—Conjunctions connect words, Phrases, or sentences; as, "He and I must go; but you may stay."

SPECIAL RULES.

Rule 1.—Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns; as, "Do good, and seek peace."—"Honour thy father and mother."

EXPLANATION.—The reason of this Rule is, that words thus connected are for the most part in the same construction: that is, nouns connected must be in the same case, because they are nominatives to the same verb, or governed by the same noun, verb, or preposition; and verbs thus connected have usually the same nominative. In respect of case, errors occur chiefly in the use of pronouns.

Obs. 1. When conjunctions connect different moods and tenses or when a contrast is stated with had, not, though, &c., the nominative is generally repeated; as, "The may return, but he will not remain."

Obs. 2. The relative after them, is usually in the objective case; as, "Alfred, than whom," & ...

Oss. 3. After verbs of doubling, forcing, deaging, the conjunction that should be used, and not lest, but, but that; as, "They feared that (not list) be would die."

Obs. 4. In the tenses formed by auxiliaries, verbs connected in the same tense have the auxiliary expressed with the first, and understood to the rest (a.g. "John can read, write, and spell." When different tenses are connected, the auxiliary must always be expressed; as, "The has come, but he will not stay."

RULE 2.—Certain words in the autoredent member of a sentence, equire corresponding connections in the subsequent one; thus,

1. In clauses or words simply connected --

 $Be^{ith} = comines \ oxet : w. \ "Both he exist Leame."$

 $-i\sigma$; is, "Either he or I will come."

 $1 + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{r} = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{$

Whether --- or ras, "B'n ther he or I came."

Though - --- jet: as, "Though he slay me, jet will I trust in him."

Not only --- but also; as, "Not only by, but also his brother goes."

2. In clauses connected so as to imply comparison.

The comparative degree requires than : as, "He is taller than 1 am."

Other requires than; as, "It is no other than he."

Else than: as, "What else do you expect than this?"

As us (expressing equality): as, "He is as tall as I am."

So --- os (with a negative, expressing inequality); as, "He is not so learned as his brother."

20 --- that (expressing consequence): as, "He is so weak, that he cannot walk."

Swh ---- as (expressing similarity); as, "He or such as he,"

NOTE.—As and so, in the metabers of a comparison, are properly conjunctive adverbs.

EXPLANATION.—This Rule means, that when any of the corresponding terms above stands in one member of a sentence, the other term should stand in the other member. After "though," "yet" is sometimes understood.

Rule 3.—When a subsequent clause, or part of a sentence, is common to two different but connected antecedent clauses, it must be equally applicable to both; as, "That work always has been, and always will be, admired."

EXPLANATION.—In order to see whether sentences are correct according to this Rule, join the member of the sentence common to the two clauses, to each of them separately, so as to make two sentences. If both of the sentences are grammatically correct, and express the sense intended, the sentence is right—if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. Thus, for example, "He has not, and he can not, be censured," is wrong, because if you add the member "be censured," to the first clause, it will make "He has not be censured," which is incorrect, according to Sub Rule 4 under Rule XVI. This must be corrected by inserting "been" after "has not," so as to read, "He has not been, and he cannot be censured." The different clauses should be correctly marked by punctuation.

This rule is often violated in sentences in which there are two comparisons of a different nature and government. Thus, "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cinthio." Here, "as Cinthio," is applicable to the clause "so much admired," but can not be connected with "more beloved." In such sentences as this, the proper way is to complete the construction of the first member, and leave that of the second understood; as, "He was more be-

loved than Cinthio, but not so much admired' (as Cinthio).

EXERCISES.

(Rule 1.)—1. In the following, point out the connected verbs. If they have the same nominative, put them in the same mood and tense. If they must be in different moods or tenses, repeat the nominative; and if that is a noun, repeat it by its pronoun. Point ont the connected nouns or pronouns, and put them in the same case.

He reads and wrote well. If he say it, and does it, I am content. If he be at home, and is well, give him the letter. My father has read the book, and will return it to-morrow. James and me ran all the way. That is a small matter between you and I. Him and I are great friends, and so are Mary and me. Nobody knows that better than her and me.

- 2. Write short sentences, in which two or more verbs are connected in the same mood and tense, and notice particularly Obs. 4. Put the verbs in the present—in the pust—and in the present-perfect, &c. Express the same ideas, with the verbs in the passive voice.
 - 3. Write sentences containing two or more verbs in different

moods and tenses, paying attention to Obs. 1; write others, containing two or more nouns or pronouns connected in the same case.

(Rule 2.)—1. Point out the corresponding terms in the following sentences, make the second correspondent to the first, or the first to the second, as the sense requires. Supply the correspondent term where improperly omitted.

He will not do it himself, nor let another do it for him. Though he slay me, so will I trust in him. That is so far as I am able to go. This book is equally good as that one. Nothing is so bad as it can not be worse. He was not only diligent, but successful in his studies. It is neither cold or hot.

Write correct sentences, each of which shall contain one pair of the corresponding terms above, and state what they express.

 3. In the following sentences, point out the comparative degree, or other correspondent terms, and make the one correspond to the other, according to the Rule.

James writes better as I do. There were more besides him engaged in that business. No more but two can play at this game. The days are longer in summer besides they are in winter. Has James no other book but this? This is such conduct that I did not expect. It can be no other but he. They had no other book except this one. I would rather read as write. He had no sooner done the mischief but he repented.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain a word in the comparative degree, or the word other or such followed by the proper correspondent term.

(Rule 3.)—Make trial of the following sentences, as directed in the explanation. If either of the clause, when joined with the member of the sentence common to both, makes a grammatical error, point it out and correct it.

He always has, and he always will, be punctual. They might, and probably were, good. James is taller but not so strong as his brother. His book is not so good, though larger than I expected. This house is larger, but not so convenient as that one. I ever have, and I ever will say so. "He depends and confides in me," is as correct as, "He confides and depends upon me." I am older, but not so feeble as Thomas. Warm weather is pleasant,

but not so bracing as cold. Iron is more useful, but not so valuable as gold or silver.

Lesson 71 .—Interjections.

Rule XX.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with the other words in a sentence.

After interjections, pronouns of the first person are commonly in the objective case; those of the second, in the nominative; as, "Ah me!"—"O thou!" In neither, however, does the case depend on the interjection. In the objective there is an ellipsis of the governing word; as, "Ah (pity) me!" In the nominative, they are in the nominative independent, denoting the person addressed.

Lesson 72.—General Rule.

In every sentence, the words employed, and the order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended; and, at the same time, all the parts of the sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be observed throughout.

See Analytical and Practical Grammar, 973 to 976.

EXPLANATION.—This may be regarded as a general rule, applicable to every case, and therefore comprehending all the preceding rules.

Among the evils to be guarded against, under this Rule, are the following:—

- The use of words which do not correctly or properly convey the idea intended, or which convey another with equal propriety.
- The arrangement of words or clauses in such a way that their relation to other words and clauses is doubtful, or difficult to be perceived.

- The separating of adjuncts from their principals, and placing them so that they may be joined to words to which they do not belong
- The separating of relative clauses improperly from their antecedents.
- 5. Using injudiciously, or too frequently, the third person of a personal pronoun, especially in indirect discourse.

Though these Rules embrace almost everything belonging to the proper construction of sentences, yet there will sometimes occur instances of impropriety in the use, and arrangement, and connection of words, for the avoiding or correcting of which no very specific rules can be given.

EXERCISES.

The following sentences are not grammatically incorrect, but from some of the causes mentioned above, are obscure, inelegant, ambiguous, or unintelligible. Point out the impropriety, correct it, and give a reason for the correction.

(1) The Greeks fearing to be surrounded on all sides, wheeled about, and halted with the river on their back.
(2) Parmenio had served, with great fidelity, Philip, the father of Alexander, as well as himself, for whom he first opened the way into Asia. (3) Lost, a new umbrella belonging to a gentleman with a curiously carried ivory head. (4) Claudius was canonized among the gods, who scarcely deserved the name of man. (5) A farmer went to a lawyer and told him that his bull had gored his ox.

Lesson 73.—Ellipsis.

Rule 1. An Ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissable, when they can be supplied by the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense. Thus,

Instead of saying, "He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man;" we say, "He was a learned, wise and good man."

EXPLANATION.—There is a constant tendency among men to express their ideas in the fewest words possible. Whenever, therefore, a word can be spared from a sentence, without obscuring its meaning, that word is often left out. This is called *cllipsis*. Thus, instead of the full form of the sentence, as follows, "I rise at six hours of the clock in the morning, I breakfast at seven hours of the clock in the morning, I go to school at nine hours of the clock, and study till twelve hours of the clock," we can say (and be equally well understood), "I rise at six, breakfast at seven, go to school at nine, and study till twelve." This is the origin of abbreviated sentences; and in order to parse such, or to understand their grammatical construction, the words left out must be supplied.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, leave out such words as may be omitted without obscuring the sense.

He had an affectionate father and an affectionate mother. You may read, or you may write, as you please. Will you study, or will you not study? I have been at London, and I have seen the Queen. A house and a garden. He would neither go, nor would he send.

2. In the following sentences, supply the words left out, so as to show their full construction.

It is six o'clock; we may study till seven. We have done it, but you have not. John will read, and Thomas write letters. This apple is larger than that, but not so sweet. Give this apple to James, that to Robert, and the other to Mary. I have heard and read much about Wellington and Napoleon. "Sun, stand thou still upon Gibeon; and thou, Moon, in the valley of Ajalon."

Lesson 74.—Ellipsis not allowable.

Rule 2.—An ellipsis is not allowable, when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety; for example,—

"We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen," should be, "We speak that which we do know, and testify that which we have seen."

EXPLANATION.—The sense will always be obscured, when on account of improper ellipsis, the construction of the sentence is

rendered doubtful, or is not clearly and readily perceived. When a sentence or clause is emphatic, ellipsis is less allowable. The antecedent to the relative, except in poetry, is seldom omitted; and the relative itself, if in the nominative case, never. The article should be repeated when a different form of it is required; as, "A horse and on ass."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, point out the improper ellipsis. Show why it is improper, and correct it.

Cicero made orations, both on public and private occasions. He is the most diligent scholar I ever knew. Thou hast that is thine. Thine the kingdom, the power, and the glory. Depart in peace, be ye warmed, clothed, and filled. I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me. That is the best can be said of him. He has a house and orchard. We must all go the way we shall not return.

Lesson 75.—Promiseums En reises on the Rules of Syntax.

in order to correct the following Exercises, examine each sentence carefully, and see wherein it is wrong. See, first, whether words that should agree, do so—the verb with its nominative—the numeral adjective with its nom—the pronoun personal and relative with its antecedent; secondly, whether nouns and pronouns are in the case which the word governing them requires; and lastly, whether the words are arranged in the order which the Rules require. Having found the error, correct it, and give the Rule for the correction. These Exercises, when corrected, or at the time of correcting, may be used as Exercises in parsing.

- 1. John writes beautiful. I shall never do so no more. The train of our ideas are often interrupted. Was you present at last meeting? He need not be in so much haste. He dare not act otherwise than he does. Him who they seek is in the house. George or I is the person. They or he is much to be blamed. The troop consist of fifty men. Those set of books was a valuable present. That pillar is sixty foot high. His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity. The trees are remarkable tall.
- 2. He acted bolder than was expected. This is he who I gave the book to. Eliza always appears amiable.

Who do you lodge with now? He was born at London, but he died in Bath. If he be sincere, I am satisfied. Her father and her were at church. The master requested him and I to read more distinctly. It is no more but his due. Flatterers flatter as long, and no longer than they have expectations of gain. John told the same story as you told. This is the largest tree which I have ever seen.

- 3. Let he and I read the next chapter. She is free of pain. Those sort of dealings are unjust. David, the son of Jesse, was the youngest of his brothers. You was very kind to him, he said. Well, say I, what dost thou think of him now? James is one of those boys that was kept in at school, for bad behaviour. Thou, James, will deny the deed. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. We need not be afraid. It is all fell down.
- 4. He expected to have gained more by the bargain. You should drink plenty of goat milk. It was him who spoke first. Is it me that you mean? Who did you buy your grammar from? If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray. Neither man nor woman were present. I am taller than you. She is the same lady who sang so sweetly. After the most straitest seet of our religion, I lived a Pharisee. Is not thy wickedness great? and thine iniquities infinite? There is six that studies grammar.

Lesson 76 -Panetuation.

Punctuation is the art of Dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to convey to the reader the exact sense, and assist him in the proper delivery. The principal stops are the following:-

The comina (,) the semicolon (;) the colon (:) the period or full stop (.) the note of interrogation (?) the note of exclamation

(!) the parenthesis () and the dash (-)

The comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and the period, a pause double that of the colon.

The duration of the pauses must be left to the taste of the reader

or speaker.

The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a panse between them.

The Semicoton is used to separate the parts of a sentence which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma.

The Colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as to require a period.

The Period is used when a sentence is complete, with respect to the construction and the sense intended; as, "God made all things." "By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tanned." "In the varieties of life, we are innred to habits of both the active and the passive virtues."

The period must be usel after all abbreviations; as, "A.D.'₄ "M.A." "Fol."

For rules of punctuation, see An. & Pr. Gram.

Lesson 77.—Capitals.

In composition the following words begin with capital letters.

- 1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or other piece of writing.
- 2. The first word after a period; also after a note of interrogation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.
 - 3. Proper names, that is, names of persons, places, ships, &c.
 - 4. The pronoun I, and the interjection O.
 - 5. The first word of every line in poetry.
- 6. The appellations of the Deity; as, God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, &c.
- 7. Adjectives derived from proper names; as, Grecian, Roman, English, &c.
- 8. The first word of a direct quotation; as, Always remember this ancient maxim: "Know thyself."
 - 9. Common nouns, when personified; as, "Come, gentle Spring."
- 10. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books; as, "Euclid's Elements of Geometry;" "Goldsmiths' Deserted Village."

NOTE.—Other words besides the preceding may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatic, or the principal subject of the composition.

PART FOURTH—PROSODY.

Lesson 78.—Prosedy.

Prosody consists of two parts; *Elocution* and *Versification*.

I. ELOCUTION.

Elocution is correct pronunciation, or the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking, and comprises Accent, Quantity, Emphasis, Inflection, Pause, and Tone.

II. VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the arrangement of a certain number of long and short syllables according to certain rules. Composition so arranged is called *Verse* or *Poetry*.

Verse is of two kinds; Rhyme and Blunk Verse. Rhyme is a similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines arranged in a certain order. Poetry consisting of such lines is sometimes called Rhyme. Blank Verse is poetry without rhyme.

Every verse or line of poetry consists of a certain number of parts called *Feet*. The arrangement of these feet in a line according to the accent, is called *Metre*; and the dividing of a line into its component feet, is called *Scanning*.

All feet used in poetry are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three syllables: the long syllable being marked by a straight line (—) and the short by a curve (—), as follows:

A Trochee — A Dactyl — A An Amphibrach — A Spondee — A Phyrric — A Tribrach — A Tri

In English, accented syllables are long, unaccented are short.

The Metres in most common use, are the *Tembic*, *Trochaic*, and *Anapastic*.

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lamenc Metree is adapted to grave and serious subjects; it has the second, fourth, and other even syllables, accented or long; and the first, third and other uneven syllables unaccented, or short. Of this verse there are various kinds, some having two feet, some three, some four, some five. This last is called Heroic measure, and is the same that is used by Milton, Young, Thomson, Pollock, &c.

When the last line of a stanza is extended to six feet, it is called Alexandrine.

Trochaic Metre is quick and lively, and adapted to gay and cheerful composition. It comprises verses of one and a half, two, three, four, five, and sometimes six feet; sometimes followed by an additional syllable.

ANAPESTIC METRE consists of lines of two, three, four Metres or Anapasts, with sometimes an additional syllable.

Lesson 79.—Composition

Composition is the putting of words together in sentences, for the purpose of expressing our ideas in writing, in the best manner, according to the Rules of Grammar, and the best usage of the language.

Almost all the Exercises in the preceding Grammar, and especially those under the Rules of Syntax, have been framed with a view to exercise the pupil in the elementary parts of composition, by leading him to vary his ideas, and to express the same idea in different forms: to detect and correct errors which often occur in the construction of sentences; and so to put him on his guard against similar errors; and also to form correct sentences for himself, according to the particular directions laid down under the various Rules. In committing his own ideas to writing, in the form of compositions, then, all he has to do, is to endeavour to select the proper words, and to combine these so as to express his meaning correctly, according to the Rules with which he is already supposed to be familiar. The few following hints may be useful.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS TO YOUNG COMPOSERS.

- 1. Spell every word correctly. Pay proper attention to the use of capitals; always using them where they should be, and never where they should not be. [See Lesson 78].
- 2. Carefully avoid all vulgar expressions and cant phrases, and never use words which you do not understand, or which do not correctly express your meaning.
 - 3. At the end of the line, never divide a word of one syllable,

nor any word in the middle of a syllable. If there should not be room at the end of the line for the whole syllable, do not begin it at all, but carry it to the next line.

- 4. When you have written what you intended, look over it carefully; see if you can improve it by a better choice of words, or by a better arrangement of them, so as to express your meaning more clearly, and mark the changes proposed.
- 5. Copy the whole over in as neat, distinct, and plain a manner as you can, guarding against blots and erasures, which disfigure any writing, dotting your i's, crossing your i's, and pointing the whole in the best matter you can, so that any person may easily read and understand it.
- 6. Try to make every new composition better than the one before it. Never write carelessly, and though it may be a little difficult at first, a little practice will soon make it easy.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

The more simple the exercises in composition are, for young beginners, the better. They should not be required to write about anything with which they are not somewhat familiar.

- 1. The following is a very simple and easy exercise. A class of pupils may be directed to look at a certain picture in the Spelling Book or Geography, or any other book at hand; and the teacher may excite their attention by asking some questions, or telling them something respecting it, and then direct each one, either in his seat or at home, to write a description of the picture, together with any ideas that occur to him on the subject. This method will furnish an endless variety of easy and useful exercises.
- 2. From pictures, the attention may be turned to real objects. The class may now be directed to any object or objects within their view, which they may be required to describe and give their ideas about, as before; for example, the school-house and its furniture—the business of the day, in the form of a journal—the principal objects in view to the south of the school-house—to the north—to the east—to the west. Each may be directed to describe his own house, and the leading objects in view from it in different directions, or any object which he may choose to select.
- 3. Another class of easy and interesting subjects may be found in describing familiar objects in natural history—the various seasons of the year, with their employments and amusements—the various operations of the farmer, and different mechanic arts—narratives of any accidents, or striking events that may have occurred.
- 4. Short familiar epistolary correspondence, real or imaginary. One pupil may be directed to write to another concerning anything he pleases. A post-office might be set up in the school, with its

letter-lox, to be opened at stated seasons, and its contents read for the amusement and instruction of the school. This exercise, because voluntary, would be entered into with spirit, and prove of great benefit.

5. Themes on familiar subjects may next be assigned, such as the following:—

Point out the evils of the following vices and improprieties, and make such remarks respecting them as you think proper; viz., Lying, Stealing, Swearing, Disobedience to Parents, Sabbath breaking, Discontentment, Intemperance, Ill nature, Violent passions, Penuriousness, Idleness, Cruelty to Animals, Bad Company, &c.

Point out the benefits arising from Truth, Honesty, Sobriety, Love to God, Love to men, Good nature, Industry, Contentment, Kindness to the Poor, Keeping Good Company, Properamusements, &c., and make such remarks as you think proper respecting them.

In all cases with beginners, it is better to require them to give their own thoughts on familiar subjects, than to give them subjects of an abstract nature, or of which they can not be supposed to have natch knowledge. In the former case, they will be likely to give their own thoughts in their own way; in the latter, they will have to resort to books, and instead of giving their own ideas, will be apt to copy the writings of others, without, perhaps, well understanding them.

6. When the compositions are prepared, the errors in Grammar should be pointed out and explained; mistakes in orthography, capitals, punctuation, &c., corrected, or pointed out to be corrected, and then the whole copied, in a correct and plain manner, into a book kept for that purpose.

Having gone through these Lessons, pupils, though young, will be well prepared for taking up, with ease and advantage, the "Analytical and Practical Grammar of the English Language," and for going through a more thorough and critical course.

SELECTIONS

IN

PROSE AND POETRY.

INTENDED TO BE USED AS

Exercises in Analysis and Barsing,

AND TO

FURNISH SUITABLE MATTER FOR THE VARIOUS EXERCISES
WHICH THE INGENUITY OF THE TEACHER MAY SUGGEST.

Select Sentences.

1. The great business of man is to improve his mind and govern his manners.

The whole universe is his library; conversation his living studies; and remarks upon them are his best tutors. $\$

Learning is the temperance of youth, the comfort of old age, and the only sure guide to honor and preferment.

2. Aristotle says, that to become an able man in any profession whatever, three things are necessary—which are, nature, study, and practice.

/ To endure present evils with patience, and wait for expected good with long suffering, is equally the part of the Christian and the hero.

/ 3. Adversity overcome, is the highest glory; and willingly undergone, the greatest virtue; sufferings are but the trials of gallant spirits.

Never employ yourself to discern the faults of others, but be careful to amend and prevent your own.

4. There is an odious spirit in many persons, who are better pleased to detect a fault than to commend a virtue.

The worthiest people are most injured by slanderers; as we usually find that to be the best fruit, which the birds have been picking at.

/ 5. When a man loses his integrity, he loses the foundation of his virtue.

A contented mind is a continual feast; and the pleasure of the banquet is greatly augmented, by knowing that each man may become his own entertainer.

6. Man is born for society, without which virtue would have no followers, the world would be without allurements, and life with-

out pleasures.

It is natural for us to contract the passions as well as the habits of those, with whom we are familiar; to follow their vices, as well as to imitate their virtues.

7. Be sincere in all your words, prudent in all your actions, and obliging in all your manners.

, He who begins an affair without judgment, ought not to be surprized if it end without success.

If justice direct you in the pursuit of gain, tranquility will attend you in the enjoyment of it.

8. We are more indebted to our parents than to all the world besides. To other persons we may owe much, but to them we owe ourselves., If ingratitude to others, therefore, is hateful, that which is shown to parents is most horrid and detestable.

Make a proper use of your time, and remember that when it is

once gone it can never be recalled.

9. Attend diligently to thy business; it will keep thee from wickedness, from poverty, and from shame.

He who harbors malice in his heart will find, to his sorrow, that a viper has been nourished in his bosom.

Men make themselves ridiculous, not so much by the qualities [which] they have, as by the affectation of those they have not.

10. To say little and perform much, is the characteristic of a

great mind.

No preacher is so successful as time. It gives a turn to thought to the aged, which it was impossible to inspire while they were young.

The injuries we do, and those we suffer, are seldom weighed in the same balance.

Select Paragraphs.

 That every day has its pains and sorrows is universally experienced, and almost universally confessed. But let us not attend only to mournful truths; if we look impartially about us, we shall and that every day has likewise its pleasures and its joys.

2. We should cherish sentiments of charity towards all men. The Author of all good, nourishes much piety and virtue in hearts that are unknown to us; and beholds repentance ready to spring up among many whom we consider as reprobates.

3. No one ought to consider himself as insignificant in the sight of his Creator. In our several stations we are all sent forth to be labourers in the vineyard of our heavenly Father. Every man has his work allotted, his talent committed to him; by the due improvement of which he may, in one way or other, serve God, promote virtue, and be useful in the world.

4. The love of praise should be preserved under proper subordination to the principle of duty. In itself, it is a useful motive to action; but when allowed to extend its influence too far, it corrupts the whole character, and produces guilt, disgrace, and misery. To be entirely destitute of it, is a defect. To be governed by it, is depravity. The proper adjustment of the several principles of action in human nature is a matter that deserves our highest attention. For when any one of them becomes either teo weak or too strong, it endangers both our virtue and our happiness.

5. The desires and passions of a vicious man, having once obtained an unlimited sway, trample him under their feet. They make him feel that he is subject to various contradictory and imperious masters, who often pull him different ways. His soul is rendered the receptacle of many repugnant and jarring dispositions; and resembles some barbarous country, cantoned out into different principalities, which are continually waging war on one

another.

6. Diseases, poverty, disappointment, and shame, are far from being, in every instance, the unavoidable doom of man. They are much more frequently the offspring of his own misguided choice. Intemperance engenders disease, sloth produces poverty, pride creates disappointment, and dishonesty exposes to shame. The ungoverned passions of men betray them into a thousand follies:

their follies into crimes; and their crimes into misfortunes.

7. When we reflect on the many distresses which abound in human life; on the scanty proportion of happiness which any man is here allowed to enjoy; on the small difference which the diversity of fortune makes on that scanty proportion; it is surprising that envy should ever have been a prevalent passion among men, much more that it should have prevailed among Christians. Where so much is suffered in common, little room is left for envy. There is more occasion for pity and sympathy, and an inclination to assist each other.

8. At our first setting out in life, when yet unacquainted with the world and its snares, when every pleasure enchants with its smiles, and every object shines with the glass of novelty, let us beware of the seducing appearances which surround us, and recollect what others have suffered from the power of headstrong desire. If we allow any passion, even though it be esteemed innocent, to acquire an absolute ascendant, our inward peace will empaired. But if any which has the taint of guilt take early possession of our mind, we may date, from that moment, the ruin of our tranquility.

9. Every man has some darling passion, which generally affords the first introduction to vice. The irregular gratifications into which it occasionally seduces him, appear under the form of venial weaknesses; and are includged, in the beginning, with scrupulousness and reserve. But, by longer practice, these restraints weaken, and the power of habit grows. One vice brings in another to its add. By a sort of natural affinity, they connect and entwine themselves; till their roots come to be spread wide and deep over all the soul.

Moral Reflections.

- 1. Whence arises the misery of this present world? It is not owing to our cloudy atmosphere, our changing seasons, and inclement skies. It is not owing to the debility of our bodies, or to the unequal distribution of the goods of fortune. Amidst all disadvantages of this kind, a pure, a steadfast, and enlightened mind, possessed of strong virtue, could enjoy itself in peace, and smile at the impotent assaults of fortune and the elements! It is within ourselves that misery has fixed its seat. Our disordered hearts, our guilty passions, our violent prejudices, and misplaced desires, are the instruments of the trouble which we endure. These sharpen the darts which adversity would otherwise point in vain against us.
- 2. Whilst the vain and the licentious are revelling in the midst of extravagance and riot, how little do they think of those scenes of sore distress which are passing, at that moment, throughout the world; multitudes struggling for a poor subsistence, to support the wife and children when they love, and who look up to them with cager eyes for that bread which they can hardly procure; multitudes groaning under sickness in desolate cottages, untended and unmounted; many, apparently in a better situation of life, pining away in secrect with concealed griefs; families weeping over the beloved friends whom they have lost, or, in the bitterness of anguish, bidding those who are just expiring the last adieu.
- 3. Never adventure on too near an approach to what is evil. Familiarize not yourselves with it, in the slightest instances, without fear. Listen with reverence to every reprehension of conscience; and preserve the most quick and accurate sensibility tright and wrong. If ever your moral impressions begin to decay,

and your natural abhorrence of guilt to lessen, you have ground to dread that the ruin of virtue is fast approaching.

4. By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tamed, and our minds are formed to sobriety and reflection. In the varieties of life, occasioned by the vicissitudes of worldly fortune, we are inured to habits both of the active and of the suffering virtues. How much soever we complain of the vanity of the world, facts plainly show, that if its vanity were less, it could not answer the purpose of salutory discipline. Unsatisfactory as it is, its pleasures are still too apt to corrupt our hearts. How fatal, then, must the consequences have been, had it yielded us more complete enjoyment! If, with all its troubles, we are in danger of being too much attached to it, how entirely would it have seduced our affections, if no troubles had been mingled with its pleasures?

5. In seasons of distress or difficulty, to abandon ourselves to dejection, carries no mark of a great or a worthy mind. Instead of sinking under trouble, and declaring "that his soul is weary of life," it becomes a wise and a good man, in the evil day, with firmness to maintain his post—to bear up against the storm—to have recourse to those advantages which, in the worst of times, are always left to integrity and virtue—and never to give up the

hope that better days may yet arise.

6. How many young persons have at first set out in the world with excellent dispositions of heart; generous, charitable, and humane: kind to their friends, and amiable among all with whom they had intercourse!—and yet how often have we seen all those fine appearances unhappily blasted in the progress of life, merely through the influence of loose and corrupting pleasures, and those very persons who promised once to be blessings to the world, sunk down, in the end, [so as] to be the burden and nuisance of society.

The most common propensity of mankind, is to store futurity with whatever is agreeable to them; especially in those periods of life when imagination is lively, and hope is ardent. Looking forward to the year now beginning, they are ready to promise themselves much from the foundations of prosperity which they have laid, from the friendships and connections which they have secured, and from the plans of conduct which they have formed. Alas! how deceitful do all these dreams of happiness often prove! While many are saying in secret to their hearts, "To-morrow shall be as this day, and more abundant," we are obliged in turn to say to them, "Boast not yourselves of to-morrow, for you know not what a day may bring forth."

SELECTIONS IN POETRY.

Transfosition.—As the style is usually more inverted in Poetry than in Prose, it will sometimes be proper, before analysing or parsing a sentence, to reduce it to the prose order, and to supply ellipses, that the grammatical dependence and construction of the several parts, as well as the meaning of the author, may be more clearly perceived.

SELECT SENTENCES.

Charity.

 Soft peace she brings wherever she arrivos, She builds our quiet as she forms our lives; Lays the rough path of peevish nature oven, And opens in each breast a little heaven.

Love of Praise.

 The love of praise, howe'er concealed by art, Reigns more or less, and glows in every heart; The proud, to gain it, toils on toils endure, The modest shun it—but to make it sure.

Beauty of Expression.

 Thy words had such a melting flow, And spoke of truth so sweetly well, They dropped like heaven's screnest snow, And all was brightness where they fell.

Man an! Woman.

4. Man is the rugged lofty pine,

That frowns o'er many a wave-beat shore.

Woman's the slender, graceful vine,

Whose curling tendrils round it twine,

And deck its rough bark sweetly o'er.

Virtuous Activity.

 Seize, mortals! seize the transient hour; Improve each moment as it flies; Life's a short summer—man a flower; He dies—Alas!—how soon he dies!

The Source of Happiness.

6. Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense, Lie in three words: health, peace, and competence. But health consists with temperance alone; And peace, O virtue, peace is all thy own.

Bliss of Celestial Origin.

7. Restless mortals toil for naught;
Bliss in vain from earth is sought:
Bliss, a native of the sky,
Never wanders. Mortals, try;
There you cannot seek in vain,
For to seek her is to gain.

The Passions.

8. The passions are a num'rous crowd, Imperious, positive, and loud. Curb these licentious sons of strife; Hence chiefly rise the storms of life; If they grow mutinous and rave, They are thy masters, thou their slave.

Epitanh.

How loved, how valued once, avails thee not:
 To whom related, or by whom begot;
 A heap of dust alone remains of thee;
 "Tis all thou art, and all the proud shall be.

Dum vivimus vivamus. - While we live, let us live.

10. "Live while you live," the epicure would say,
"And seize the pleasures of the present day."
"Live while you live," the sacred preacher cries,
"And give to God each moment as it flies."
Lord! in my views, let both unite! be;
I live in pleasure when I live to thee!

Confidence in Divine Protection.

11. Man may trouble and distress me, 'Twill but drive me to thy breast; Life with trials hard may press me, Heaven will bring me sweeter rest; Oh! 'tis not in grief to harm me, While thy love is left to me; Oh! 'twere not in joy to charm me, Were that joy unmix'd with Thee.

SELECT PARAGRAPHS.

Music.

 Deep as the murmurs of the falling floods, Sweet as the warbles of the vocal woods; The listening passions hear, and sink, and rise. As the rich harmony or swells or dies! The pulse of avarice forgets to move; A purer rapture fills the breast of love; Devotion lifts to heav'n a holier eye, And bleeding pity heaves a softer sigh.

Spring.

2. From the moist meadow to the wither'd hill, Led by the breeze, the vivid verdure runs, And swells, and deepens; to the cherished 6ye, The hawthorn whitens; and the juicy groves Put forth their buds unfolding by degrees, Till the whole leafy forest stands display'd In full luxurience, to the sighing gales.

Summer.

3. The bright effulgent sun.
Rising direct, swift chases from the sky
The short liv'd twilight, and with ardent blaze
Looks guily fierer through all the dazzling air;
He mounts his throne; but kind before him sends—
Issuing from out the portals of the morn—
The genial breeze, to mitigate his fire,
And breathe refreshment on a fainting world.

Autumn.

Incessant rustles from the mournful grove, Oft startling such as, studious, walk below. And slowly circles through the waving air. Fled is the blasted verdure of the fields, And, shrunk into their beds, the flowery race. Their sunny robes resign. Even what remain'd Of stronger fruits, falls from the naked tree; And woods, fields, gardens, orchards, all around. The desolated prospect thrills the soul.

Winter.

5. The horizontal sun, Broad o'er the south, hangs at his utmost noon And ineffectual strikes the gelid cliff: His azure gloss the mountain still maintains, Nor feels the feeble touch. Perhaps the vale Relents awhile to the reflected ray; Or from the forest falls the clustered snow, Myriads of gems. that in the waving gleam. Gay twinkle as they scatter. Thick around Thunders the sport of those, who, with the gun And dog impatient, bounding at the shot, Worse than the Season desolate the fields.

Sunrisc.

6. But yonder comes the powerful king of day, Rejoicing in the East. The less'ning cloud, The kindling azure, and the mountain's brow, Illum'd with fluid, his near approach Betoken glad. Lo, now, apparent all Aslaut the dew-bright earth, and colored air, He looks in boundless majesty abroad; And sheds the shining day, that burnished plays On rocks, and hills, and towers, and wand'ring streams, High gleaning from afar.

Reputation.

7. Good name in man and woman, Is the immediate jewel of their souls: Who steals my purse, steals trash; 'tis something, nothing: 'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands: But he that filches from me my good name, Robs me of that which not enriches him, And makes me poor indeed.

Evening Sounds.

8. Sweet was the sound, when oft, at evening's close. Up yonder hill the village nurmur rose; There as I pass'd with careless step and slow, The mingling notes came soften'd from below: The swain responsive as the milk-maid sung, The sober herd that low'd to meet their young, The noisy goese that gabbled o'er the pool, The playful children just let loose from school, The watch-dog's voice that bay'd the whispering wind, And the loud laugh that spoke the vacant mind,—These all in soft confusion sought the shade, And fill'd each pause the nightingale had made.

Morning Sounds.

9. Up springs the lark, Shrill voic'd, and loud, the messenger of morn; Ere yet the shadows fly, he mounted sings Amid the dawning clouds, and from their haunts Calls up the tuneful nation. The black-bird whistles from the thorny brake, The inclow bulfinch answers from the grove; Nor are the linnets, o'er the flowering furze Pour'd out profusely, silent. Join'd to these, Innumerable songsters, in the freshening shade Of new-sprung leaves, their modulation mix Mellifluous. The jay, the rook, the daw, And each harsh pipe, di cordant heard alone, Aid the full concert; while the stock-dove breathes A melancholy murmur through the whole,

The Subbath. - WILLIS.

It was a pleasant morning in the time When the leaves fall-and the bright sun shone out As when the morning stars first sang together-So quietly and calmly fell his light Upon a world at rest. There was no leaf In motion, and the loud winds slept, and All was still. The lab'ring herd was grazing Upon the hill-side quietly-uncalled By the harsh voice of man; and distant sound Save from the murniuring waterfall, came not 10 As usual on the ear. One hour stole on, And then another of the morning, calm And still as Eden ere the birth of man. And then broke in the Sabbath chime of bells. And the old man and his descendants went 15 Together to the house of God. I joined The well-appareled crowd. The holy man Rose solemnly, and breathed the prayer of faith; And the grey saint, just on the wing of heaven,-And the fair maid, -and the bright-haired young man, -20 And the child of curling locks, just taught to close The lash of its blue eyes the while, -all knelt, In attitude of prayer; and then the hymn, Sincere in its low melody, went up To worship God.



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